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ABSTRACT

A unit in a Glendale, California sixth grade social studies curriculum is presented as a model for addressing two problems in the instruction of the growing population of limited English-proficient (LEP) students: (1) inadequate teacher training; and (2) shortage of appropriate, effective instructional materials. For the curriculum segment on Chinese civilization, six mandated objectives were used as the basis for six lesson plans. Methodological considerations are also discussed in some detail, focusing on the value of the sheltered approach to instruction of LEP students, specific instructional techniques for this approach, and the use of cooperative learning techniques and projects. Case studies illustrating the effectiveness of cooperative learning with Japanese-speaking and Hispanic students are offered. A 45-item bibliography is included. Appended materials include Glendale Unified School District data on enrollment and language background, district handbook notes on stages of language acquisition, and the six lesson plans and related instructional materials. (MSE)

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LESSONS ON ANCIENT CHINA FOR LEP ADOLESCENTS

A THESIS

Presented to

the Faculty of the School of Intercultural Studies

Department of TESOL and Applied Linguistics

Biola University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts in TESOL

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by

Pierre Giles Wigglesworth

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ABSTRACT

LESSONS ON ANCIENT CHINA FOR LEP ADOLESCENTS

Pierre Giles Wigglesworth

Educators throughout the state of California have become increasingly frustrated in their efforts to educate growing numbers of language minority students. Classroom teachers, in particular, have voiced their dissatisfaction with an educational system that falls short in both its preparation for teachers and its assistance in providing them with appropriate instructional materials. In this study, a remedy for these two shortcomings is examined. A Limited English Proficient (LEP) instructional program in Glendale, California is initially explored as a model for other schools and districts to follow. Coupled with the model, the state-of-the-art teaching techniques of sheltered instruction and cooperative learning are documented. In addition, six lesson plans on ancient China for a sixth grade social studies curriculum are provided as an example of instructional materials adapted for greater comprehension among LEP students. These lessons also closely adhere to the guidelines laid out in California's recent History-Social Science Framework.

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INTRODUCTION

As America becomes ever more ethnically diverse, the task of providing practical, relevant, and comprehensible instructional programs for its immigrant population becomes increasingly formidable. Across this nation, whether in the Northeastern states where Asian, Hispanic, and European immigrants are predominant or in the Southwestern states where growing numbers of Hispanics and entrepreneurial Asian families have taken up residence, teachers have had to find creative and effective ways of instructing their minority students.

Nowhere has this immigrant explosion and the accompanying pedagogical adjustment been more manifest than in California where "a majority of its students members of ethnic and racial minorities" (Olsen & Mullen, 1990, p. 4). Teachers have had no choice but to employ innovative and comprehensive teaching strategies in order to educate their enormous immigrant student populations, especially as these strategies relate to the content areas of science, history, and math. Content courses such as these have naturally required considerable pedagogic adjustments since these subjects are often problematic for non-native students.

In the following study, the effects of this immigrant upsurge upon educational practices within California, and more specifically in Glendale, are discussed. Because the Glendale Unified School District (GUSD) has been successful in meeting the instructional

needs of its minority students, this district's approach will be explored in detail.

Content area lessons which are creative and innovative do little good for classroom teachers unless they adhere to state guidelines for that particular subject. Therefore, in chapter III, state guidelines for a History-Social Science curriculum are previewed as they are spelled out in the current California History-Social Science Framework (hereafter referred to as the Framework). Particular attention is paid to the Framework's sixth grade world history requirements including specific objectives delineated for any unit on Chinese civilization.

The state-of-the-art teaching strategies of sheltered and cooperative learning are discussed in chapter IV in order to provide instructors with documentation that supports such instructional methodologies. Two sources which provide considerable documentation for the academic, social, and emotional benefits of cooperative learning are cited extensively. These texts, put out by the California State Department of Education, are "Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students" and "Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework." Lessons on ancient China (recently produced for Glendale's sixth grade Limited English Proficient (LEP) students) are used to exemplify sheltered and cooperative teaching strategies and to give teachers a model upon which to base the production of their own lessons.

CHAPTER I

CALIFORNIA'S CHALLENGE--EDUCATING IMMIGRANTS

"A rainbow of faces, a multitude of languages fill the classrooms of California's public schools, providing a preview of our future society--a preview not to be ignored" (Olsen, 1988, p. 5). This statement, taken from a recent California Tomorrow Policy Research Report, accurately portrays the challenge facing educators in this state--can the overwhelming increase of immigrant students be effectively educated and prepared to meet the demands of life and society into the next century?

Undoubtedly, California has become the primary example of the increasingly diverse pluralistic society we call the United States of America. Largely due to an astounding upsurge of immigration over the past decade, California's foreign-born residents now exceed 5.3 million people with the greater majority of immigrants from Asia and Latin America. All indications suggest that this ever-growing flood of newcomers will continue and that by the turn of the century--or shortly thereafter--"there will be no single majority ethnic group in California" (Olsen, 1988, p. 5). Consider that recently "President George Bush signed into law the most sweeping revision of the nation's immigration laws in 66 years, thus boosting immigration quotas by 40% beginning in 1992" (Ostrow, 1990, p. A38). This bill will "raise total annual immigration levels from 540,000 to 700,000 in 1992-1994" (Ostrow). Since it is

documented that "one in four immigrants who come to the U.S. each year settles in California" (California State Department of Education, 1990(a), p. 2), state educators should be prepared to efficiently and effectively instruct these newly arrived immigrants.

Language and Cultural Diversity of Immigrants

It is obvious that California is changing and that it will continue to change at an unprecedented pace. The new cultural make-up of communities, the increase of ethnic markets, and the arrival of many new immigrants on the work scene are all evidence of a changing populace within this state. Nowhere is this change more evident than in public schools. It is here that one can most clearly see this rapid and diverse ethnic expansion. Recent statistics (Olsen & Mullen, 1990) indicate that minorities comprise some 50% of California's student population. Foreign-born immigrants now constitute a full 16% of the kindergarten through grade 12 enrollment in California with close to one in four public school students representing language minorities.

> Most of California's new immigrants are coming from Mexico, Central America and the Pacific Rim--speaking languages other than English, reflecting diverse cultures and national backgrounds, and facing the difficult task of making a transition to a wholly new culture and nation. (Olsen & Mullen, 1990, p. 5)

Consequently, the number of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students (740,000 in 1989) has tripled in just one decade due to the rapid immigrant influx (see Figure 1). Some school districts have reported as many as 80% of their enrollments to be LEP.

Californians can no longer afford to view the immigrant population as a "fringe element of our student population" (Olsen, 1988, p. 5). Rather, educators must acknowledge these astounding figures and realize that they represent a rapidly expanding and increasingly pivotal segment of our schools and our future society. Then, in response, educators must determine whether or not their existing instructional programs can adequately meet the demands placed on them by the burgeoning immigrant population. Are they going to make necessary adjustments in statewide, educational programs to keep pace, or will they continue to allow students to enroll in programs "which are woefully unprepared and inadequate to address their needs" (Olsen, 1988, p. 6)?

California's Approach to Instructing School-Age Immigrants

California educators are, indeed, aware of the challenge they face regarding instructing language minority students. Conscientious efforts by educators on all levels have already been made so as to narrow the academic gap between immigrant students and their English speaking counterparts. Recent statewide California Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (CATESOL) conferences have revealed a growing interest in teaching techniques that enhance comprehension of content-area subject matter and that encourage second language acquisition among LEP students. Similarly, a spring 1990 Social Studies conference in San Diego acknowledged a growing need for implementing instructional techniques which would make

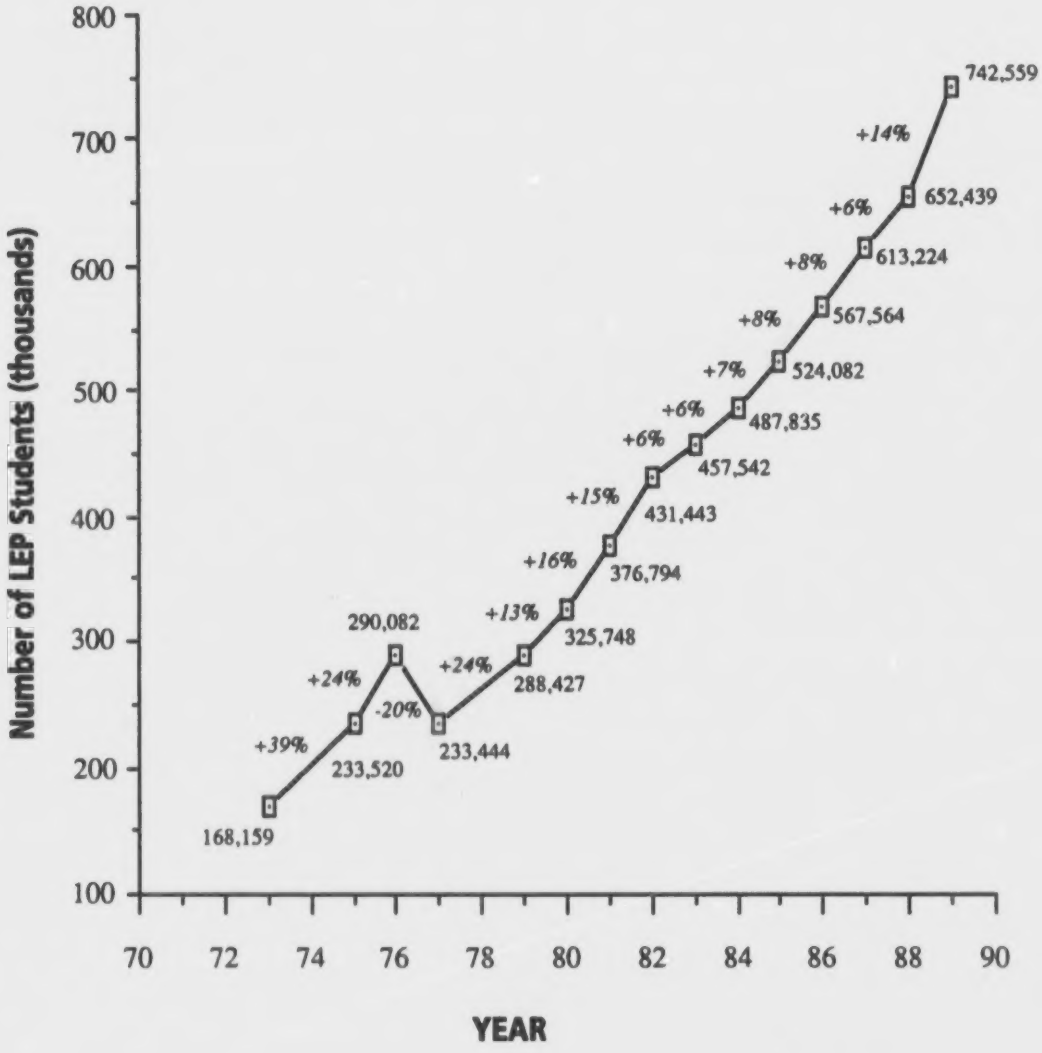

Figure 1. Growth of limited English proficient students in California's public schools 1973-1989 (Olsen & Mullen, 1990, p. 6).

Note: No census was taken in 1974 and 1978.

lessons more relevant and comprehensible to California's immigrant students. (Glendale will be looked at as a model of success later).

By far the most telling evidence of California's concern for educating its language minority students is found in the California State Department of Education's Coordinated Compliance Review (CCR) Manual (a document which holds schools and school districts accountable for the execution of specially funded programs). The CCR Manual, in its discussion regarding state programs for students of limited English proficiency, presents the following as one primary instructional mandate:

> In order to provide equal opportunity for academic achievement in the districts' regular course of study and to prevent any substantive academic deficits, each LEP student whose diagnosis makes it necessary receives specially designed academic instruction in English. (California State Department of Education, 1990(b), p. 140)

In order to comply with this directive, teachers who present content-area material in English must "use instructional methodology specially designed for non-native speakers of English to increase the comprehensibility of the lessons" (California State Department of Education, 1990(b), p. 140). Significantly, sheltered English instruction is specifically singled out in the document as one such specially designed approach.

State educators (as revealed in the CCR Manual's mandates) are not only concerned that LEP students grasp content-area subject matter; they also realize an equally if not more important aspect of an educational program is developing students' self-concept and enabling them to achieve cross-cultural understanding. This

is clearly another major concern within the state as depicted in the CCR Manual:

> Curriculum includes lessons and materials acknowledging historical and contemporary experiences of groups and individuals that are members of the same cultural group of the LEP students enrolled in the school. (California State Department of Education, 1990b, p. 140)

In other words, teachers are exhorted to employ lessons and activities that will not only create awareness but will also promote understanding and cooperation among the various cultural groups found at a particular school site. Lesson plans and materials, therefore, should not be overly ethnocentric so as to taint or impede, in any way, students' personal, social, or cultural growth.

Considering the need and, more importantly, considering the state's mandates that these two instructional objectives be implemented and maintained in every public school accross the state, why has there been such limited response? Why are LEP students in a large majority of school districts still faced with the intimidating task of reading core textbooks designed for native English speakers? Why have many classroom teachers not responded appropriately to the above state mandates and adapted their lesson material to make it not only more comprehensible, but more enjoyable as well?

According to teachers interviewed by California Tomorrow (a non-profit, non-partisan organization built on the belief that the state's diverse population offers a rare opportunity to create a fair, working, multi-racial, multicultural society), there are numerous reasons why the full and successful implementation of

the state's guidelines have been slow in coming. Two of the most prevalent constraints cited by classroom teachers were: (1) a lack of teacher training, and (2) a shortage of appropriate, effective instructional materials.

Overall, teachers interviewed in the California Tomorrow report were largely critical of the teacher training programs because they failed to adequately address the challenges and issues of ethnically diverse classrooms. Says Kate Duggan, a middle school teacher from Glendale:

> I don't think teachers are trained with the reality of the situation at all. I know I wasn't prepared for the sheer demands of daily teaching. The people who taught me hadn't been in a real high school for years, and the whole situation was different. Dealing with ethnic groups, gangs, kids who don't speak English, cultural differences. Dealing with how different kids react from different cultures, and how they see things. (Olsen & Mullen, 1990, p. 76)

Ms. Duggan goes on to explain that sheltered instruction literally saved her life in the classroom, but she did not receive any of that training until after she had become a teacher. By then it was too late. "You die out there if you don't have a repetoire of that (sheltered) stuff," she concluded (p. 76). Others of those interviewed in the same report unanimously concurred with Ms. Duggan's point of view, stating that: "all teacher training programs in California should require at least minimal exposure to second language acquisition theory and techniques for all teachers in training" (p. 77). If such exposure to second language acquisition theory and techniques should be required, it can be assumed that presently it is not required. Clearly, this lack of teacher preparation

for addressing the needs of ethnically and linguistically diverse classrooms has to be seen as a major hindrance to the successful implementation of the state's mandates.

For educators to successfully achieve the state's objectives for LEP students, there is still another serious drawback that must be addressed, the shortage of appropriate supplementary materials. According to the California Tomorrow report, teachers unanimously felt that supplementary materials were essential for addressing the various cultural and national perspectives of their students, and these same materials "assured the multiple perspectives and critical thinking emphasis of their teaching" (Olsen & Mullen, 1990, p. 40). In a nutshell, teachers in this survey found that textbooks simply did not incorporate the viewpoints or the materials necessary to address the needs of their ethnically diverse classrooms. As a result, they were forced to search bookstores, magazine racks, and libraries to find additional materials to supplement their lessons. Teachers have had to build up their resource collections out of their own money. It has not been easy. Nan Cano, a high school English teacher from Agoura Hills, expresses her frustration with the state's lack of materials:

> There are curriculum themes that allow you, beg you, to bring in stuff from other cultures. But we need an awful lot of help. I've done a lot of reading and hunting on my own, and it's difficult to find those pieces. It's not always the teacher's fault if they don't do these things. It's very hard to get your hands on materials. (Olsen & Mullen, 1990, p. 40)

While it is true that some teachers remain undaunted in their resolve to acquire the materials necessary to educate their language

minority students, many more give up their efforts believing the task before them is insurmountable. Teachers who are forced to find extra time and extra resources to help pull together appropriate supplementary teaching materials in addition to their already overburdened work schedules, simply abandon the fight for educating language minority students altogether. Somehow, the excessive burden placed upon classroom teachers educating our ethnic minorities must be alleviated.

The following study and accompanying lesson plans on ancient China are presented as a means of mitigating, in a limited way, two of the problems facing educators involved in instructing language minority students: (1) inadequate teacher training, and (2) a shortage of appropriate, effective instructional materials. This does not mean that there are not other contributing factors hindering the successful instruction of LEP students. However, other factors including financial constraints, racism, and simple unwillingness on the part of district and school administrators to implement the CCR Manual's objectives are outside the scope of this present study.

CHAPTER II

GLENDALE--A MICROCOSM OF CALIFORNIA

Realizing that many teachers are ill-equipped to address the growing multi-faceted demands of multicultural classrooms and, furthermore, lack the necessary instructional materials to effectively educate large numbers of minorities, school districts across the state are restructuring their goals for LEP students. In the following paragraphs, Glendale Unified School District (GUSD) will be looked at as a model of success in providing foreign-born students of diverse ethnicity a high quality education. Particular attention will be paid to the make-up of Glendale's immigrants, the evolution of its LEP instructional program, its current approach to instructing language minority students and accompanying rationale, its implementation of sheltered instruction and cooperative learning strategies, and its emphasis on teacher training and lesson material adaptation.

Much as the general populace of California is comprised of an intricate mosaic of ethnic nationalities, so Glendale, like many other urban communities, is found to be teeming with immigrant peoples. Nowhere is this more evident than in Glendale's public schools. According to Glendale's March 1990 census report, "The percentage of non-English language background students (LEP and FEP-Fully English Proficient) is 62.9 of the total District enrollment" (Sanchis, 1990, p. 110). This is a staggering 70%

increase over the past eight years (see Appendix A). Over the past five years, GUSD has undergone such massive and swift demographic changes (processing between 10 and 15 new immigrants each day) that it has been forced to open up at least one classroom about every week (Olsen & Mullen, 1990, p. 8-9). Below is a brief look at those nationalities that are now filling Glendale's classrooms.

Predominant Language Minority Students in Glendale

Over the past year, LEP student enrollment has increased at a considerably faster rate than the total district enrollment (1,635 LEP students compared to 1,318 student increases for the overall district). Significantly, nine elementary schools and five secondary schools "have greater than the total district percent of non-English background students" (Sanchis, 1990, p. 110). Among the more prominent minority groups found in GUSD, Armenians represent the largest contingent with a combined (LEP and FEP) total of 5,748 enrollees. They are followed by Spanish speaking immigrants with a combined student enrollment of 5,082. Korean and Filipino round out the largest of Glendale's minority groups with LEP and FEP totals of 2,079 and 671 respectively. (For a complete listing of all the language/ethnic groups exhibited in Glendale schools, see Appendix B). Combined with the remaining LEP and FEP figures, this brings the total immigrant population within GUSD to a remarkable 15,383 out of a total district wide enrollment of 24,475. Understandably, Glendale has had to implement an appropriate course

of action in order to effectively cope with such an overwhelming influx of minority students.

Although Glendale does not rank nearly as high as, say, Calexico Unified or the Santa Ana Unified School District in terms of percent of total district LEP enrollment, its 1985 LEP percentage positioned it fourth on a statewide list of districts with highest LEP populations (see Appendix C). This fact, coupled with the statistics presented above, points to only one conclusion: Glendale has had to adapt and modify its academic programs to adequately meet the growing needs of its LEP students. Certainly Glendale is not alone. School districts across the state are more than likely tackling this present immigrant explosion with all the energy and resources they can muster. However, for the purpose of this study, only data pertinent to Glendale's approach to instructing language minority students will be included.

The Evolution of Glendale's LEP Instructional Program

Historically speaking, GUSD has taken its role of providing minority students with high-quality education quite seriously. In 1968, an English as a Second Language Program (ESL) was established in both elementary and secondary schools in order to accommodate the growing number of immigrant students entering the district. Some years later, in 1973, GUSD established the Department of Intercultural Education:

> to supervise and coordinate programs in the district relating to the needs of the Limited and non-English speaking students: development of special programs

> for minority students; implementation and supervision of district, state, and federally-funded bilingual programs, development of in-service programs for teachers and staff of the district; and to maintain a direct line of communication with the Superintendent and Deputy Superintendent concerning these responsibilities. (Eichelberger, 1989, p. 105)

Continuing its pursuit of excellence and further demonstrating its commitment to initiating and determining efficacious programs for LEP students, GUSD subsequently began incorporating "many of the Title VII (Federal grants from office of Bilingual Education in Washington, D.C. specifically allocated for assisting language minority students) Sheltered English Approach (SEA) Project activities in District practices and curriuculum development" (Eichelberger, 1989, p. 102).

This project was designed to meet the needs of language minority groups through modifying curriculum and adopting innovative instructional strategies which could meet the academic needs of these students. The project would employ strategies which make content-area instruction more comprehensible and which would ameliorate concept development and communication skills. (Some aspects of this project will be examined later in this chapter.)

Glendale Unified School District is clearly undeterred in its resolve to provide exceptional educational programs for its minority population and has a remarkable history of establishing reputable instructional programs in this area.

Glendale's Current Approach to Instructing Language Minority Students

From the original, humble beginnings of an ESL program some two decades ago, Glendale has emerged in the 1990's as a leader and pacesetter in implementing instructional methodologies for its minority students. In the following paragraphs, a general overview of some of the characteristics of Glendale's multi-pronged approach to educating minority students will be presented. In no way is this meant to be a comprehensive presentation, merely an overview.

In 1988, a district-established Categorical Program Review Committee determined that Glendale's existing programs for LEP students, although strong in many ways, nonetheless, needed some revision. As a result, the committee recommended certain modifications in the program in order to meet the growing needs of the enormous language minority student population. A handbook entitled LEP Handbook: Educational Program For Language Minority Students was developed "to provide guidelines for program implementation based on Committee recommendations and remaining state and federal guidelines" (GUSD Special Project's Staff, 1987, p. 1-1).

As stated in the manual itself:

> The primary goals of the program were threefold: 1) To provide opportunities for limited English students to achieve their potential in English language proficiency 2) To provide primary language instruction and/or

> assistance in basic subject areas until the transfer to English is complete 3) To promote a positive self-image and cross-cultural understanding. (GUSD Special Project's Staff, 1987, p. 2-1)

(These objectives, it should be noted, are clearly in accordance with the CCR Manual's mandates discussed earlier.)

To attain these goals, one particular model was suggested. In this model, the instructional program was modified so that students would transition gradually into mainstream classes beginning with subjects that demand fewer literacy skills and only a limited amount of abstraction. Later, as proficiency in the target language increased, they would be mainstreamed. As can be seen in Figure 2, as students progress through each subsequent proficiency level, primary language subjects diminish and sheltered and mainstream subjects increase. Thus, students are given time to develop their own native language proficiency while gradually gaining confidence in the target language.

ENGLISH PROFICIENCY	MODE OF INSTRUCTION		
	Primary Language	Sheltered	Mainstream
Pre & Early Production (IDEA I-III)	Language Arts Math Science	ESL Art Music	PE
Speech Emergence (IDEA IV-V)	Language Arts Science Social Studies	ESL Math	Art Music PE
Speech Emergence/ Intermediate Fluency (IDEA VI-VIII)		Language Arts ESL Science Social Studies	Music PE Math
Reclassified FEP			All Subjects

Figure 2. "English Proficiency" and "Mode of Instruction" chart (GUSD Project's Staff, 1987, p. 4-6).

The basis for this model is empirically sound and is strongly supported by research in the field (Genesee, 1987; Schifini & Galvan, 1987; Cummins, 1988; Richard-Amato & Snow, 1992; and Snow, Met & Genesee, 1992). The bilingual program in Glendale Unified School District is founded upon the Contexual Interaction Theory by James Cummins. His findings are purported to provide "the most thoroughly articulated body of theory and research with specific relevance to language minority students in terms of the nature of the linguistic skills and cognitive processes that contribute to academic success or failure" (McGroarty, 1988, p. 307). Educators in Glendale have

found Cummins' theory especially effective in promoting greater English proficiency, academic achievement, and psychological adjustment among their LEP students. They state that:

> This theory includes empirically supported principles on how each individual student interacts with instructional treatment to contribute to the desired goals of English language proficiency, academic achievement and psychological adjustment. (GUSD Special Project's Staff, 1987, p. 12-1).

Put more simply, the theory gives educators some concrete data on exactly how minority students are influenced in their educational development and what can be done to aid them inthe process.

Glendale Unified School District has condensed Cummins' theory to include three principles which focus on the importance of the student's primary language. The first principle pertains to what Cummins has termed the "interdependence" hypothesis, or simply put, the idea that instruction in a person's native language, if effective in promoting L1 proficiency, will promote his or her proficiency in L2.

> In immersion programs for majority language children, as well as in bilingual programs for minority children, instruction through the minority language has been effective in promoting proficiency in both languages. These findings support the following 'Interdependence' Hypothesis: To the extent that instruction in Lx is effective in promoting proficiency in Lx, transfer of this proficiency to Ly will occur provided there is adequate exposure to Ly (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn Ly. (Cummins, 1981, p. 29)

It follows, then, that for bilingual students, the degree to which they develop both their native and second language proficiencies will positively enhance their academic achievement.

The second principle, in effect, defines precisely what language proficiency means and what it enables students to do. "Language proficiency is the ability to use language for both academic purposes and basic communicative tasks" (GUSD Special Project's Staff, 1987, p. 12-1). Cummins argues, that in addition to developing basic interpersonal and communictive skills (BICS) in their first language, students must also develop cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) skills. Put simply, BICS will help a student deal with day to day interpersonal communication outside of school, whereas CALP "makes possible the transfer of cognitive/academic or literacy skills across languages" (Cummins, 1988, p. 156).

The third principle, although somewhat a synthesis of the first two, brings out yet another important point:

> For language minority students, the development of the primary language skills necessary to complete academic tasks forms the basis for similar proficiency in English. (GUSD Special Project's Staff, 1987, p. 12-1)

According to Cummins then, "although the surface aspects (pronunciation, fluency, etc.) of, for example, Spanish and English or Chinese and English are clearly separate, there is an underlying cognitive/academic proficiency that is common across languages (Cummins, 1988, p. 156). Hence, it is apparent from the preceding three principles that first language maintenance is not only an integral part but also an essential aspect of any bilingual program.

In addition to providing strong primary language support for its minority students, Glendale's bilingual program is also thoroughly reinforced by three communicative-based instructional approaches:

the Natural Approach, Total Physical Response (TPR), and the Language Experience Approach. Used in varying degrees within the ESL classroom, these teaching strategies have been shown to be very effective in helping students acquire a second language. ESL teachers who employ these communicative-based instructional techniques develop their goals, strategies, and student evaluations around one overall objective: the students' ability to communicate messages. Further, "classroom activities, textbooks, and other materials are formulated in communicative rather than grammatical or structural form" (GUSD Special Project's Staff, 1987, p. 12-3). The rationale for this is clear. Research on second language acquisition weighs heavily on the side of implementing such a strategy. Ellis, 1984, for one, lists five features of instructional materials that characterize real discourse in the classroom:

> 1) There must be a communicative purpose, not merely a pedagogic one. 2) There must be a focus on the message or on meaning rather than on how the message is conveyed. 3) There must be an information gap--one speaker must not know what the other speaker is going to say. 4) The communication stimulated by the task must be negotiated rather than predetermined. In particular, there must not be rigid control over language to be used. 5) The learners must be allowed to use whatever resources, verbal or nonverbal, they possess. (206-207)

Krashen, in his discussion on acquisition and learning in second language production has strong reservations regarding the efficacy of grammatically based instructional programs. He believes grammar has its place in the ESL classroom, but no longer plays the lead role: "formal rules, or conscious learning, play only a limited role in second language performance" (Krashen, 1981,

p. 16). According to Krashen's theory of second language acquisition (to be looked at more thoroughly in the next chapter), acquisition can only occur when there is:

> a relatively unconscious internalization of linguistic rules through a process of creative construction. It is this process that typically occurs when languages are acquired in natural or naturalistic contexts where real, meaningful communication takes place. (Genesee, 1988, p. 91)

Thus it appears that for Ellis and Krashen, among others, the primary emphasis for ESL instructors should be upon the content of the messages and allowing students the occasion to negotiate the meanings of those messages.

Additionally, in an effort to assist students in mastering content material while simultaneously expanding their English language proficiency, GUSD has implemented the recently discovered pedagogic strategy referred to as "sheltered" instruction. Students who have reached the Speech Emergence/Intermediate Fluency stages of language acquisition (see Appendix D) are prime candidates to receive content-area instruction in a sheltered fashion. Sheltered instruction, as will be discussed in Chapter IV, is really nothing more than modifying a curriculum and/or the instructional strategies of a subject in order to make the content more comprehensible and relevant to students. Sheltered lessons often include one or more of these characteristics: simplified speech, contextual clues, task-function and/or interactional activities. (Some specific sheltered characteristics will be demonstrated later.) Through GUSD's Title VII Project, specialists have already completed sheltered

curricula in social studies and science for grades fourth through sixth.

It is important to note that sheltered instruction does not take the place of primary language instruction, nor does it circumvent the need for ESL training. Rather, at least in Glendale, it acts as a bridge for ensuring students a smooth transition from primary language classrooms to mainstream classrooms:

> Sheltered instruction is the link between instruction in the primary language and mainstream unmodified courses. For students to receive maximum benefit from sheltered classes, they need to be adequately prepared by receiving comprehensive oral English and vocabulary development. (GUSD Special Project's Staff, 1987, p. 12-22)

The last aspect of Glendale's Bilingual Program that merits attention pertains to the teaching strategy entitled Cooperative Learning. Cooperative Learning is the structuring of classrooms so that students work "in small groups or teams to help one another learn academic material" (Slavin, 1991, p. 71). Formulated largely upon the research of Spencer Kagan, Professor of Psychology at the University of California, Riverside, Cooperative Learning has become an integral part of Glendale's approach to schooling language minority students. Because of the great successes Cooperative Learning has achieved in Glendale schools, not only as a tool for learning, but also as a means of developing social skills, Dr. Kagan's cooperative theories have become "the mainstay of the training and implementation (of cooperative strategies) used in our District" (GUSD Special Project's Staff, 1987, p. 12-30) In chapter IV, five distinct variations of the Cooperative Learning approach

will be explored. Each of these variations will be accompanied by appropriate and useful examples found in the lessons on ancient China.

The previous discussion on Glendale's current approach to instructing language minority students would not be complete without some mention of Glendale's emphasis on teacher training. Due in a large part to the Title VII SEA Project mentioned earlier, classroom teachers have been given extensive training in Sheltered/Cooperative teaching strategies. According to Donna Eichelberger, the Title VII SEA Project coordinator, in 1985 (the first year of the project's implementation) some 40 fourth to sixth grade teachers attended Saturday workshops to receive specialized training in sheltered and cooperative learning strategies. Alfredo Schifini, considered an expert on sheltered English, assisted Donna in putting together the parameters of the Title VII SEA Project. He also offered instruction in sheltered instruction while acting as a consultant to Donna and the other Title staff members. Spencer Kagan, one of the most knowledgeable experts in the field of cooperative learning, was also invited to speak at these Saturday workshops. He provided invaluable "hands-on" training in cooperative learning for teachers during the first year of the Title VII Project. Charlotte Crabtree, Director of the National Center for History in the Schools, added more specified instruction on social studies lessons for LEP students. In addition to providing ideas for social studies curricula, during the Saturday workshops, she instructed teachers in the art of using hands-on materials such as overlays,

time-lines, and maps. "Teacher training," as Donna put it, "was the foundation to Glendale's Title VII SEA Project."

Beyond giving teachers much needed, high-quality training sessions in sheltered and cooperative learning, Donna also saw that appropriate, content course materials were developed for Glendale teachers groping for some means of instructing their LEP students. Three teachers per grade level (fourth to sixth grade) were selected to develop sheltered materials in both science and social studies. Using Kagan's lesson format (see lessons I-VI), teachers developed lessons with clear-cut objectives and interactive activities thus enabling students to more readily grasp the material. These lessons often included the use of manipulatives such as pictures, wall maps, globes, and artifacts. Videos, film strips, and simplified literature books were also used to aid comprehension. Once completed, the lessons were mass produced and made available to teachers throughout the district.

Because of the success of Glendale's Title VII SEA Project, two important awards were received by the program: the California exemplary Bilingual Program Validation in 1987-88 and the CABE (California Bilingual Education) award for the pursuit of equity and excellence for LEP students in 1989 (GUSD Title VII Staff, Spring 1991, p. 1). Moreover, during a recent study done by the Southwest Regional Educational Laboratory Study of Exemplary Practices (which attempts to identify significant features of special alternative instructional programs), the director of data collection, Dr. Lillian Vega Castaneda, noted these key strengths of Glendale's

Title VII Project: classroom grouping strategies, a strong staff development component, creative teaching practices and curriculum modification (GUSD Title VII Staff, Spring 1991, p. 3).

GUSD has unquestionably responded to the overwhelming needs of its LEP students. In an organized, conscientious fashion, teachers in this school district have been given much needed highly competent training in sheltered and cooperative learning while, at the same time, receiving instructional materials which have been adapted to facilitate learning among its minority students.

CHAPTER III

SOCIAL STUDIES

Glendale's curriculum writers already have completed sheltered curricula in social studies for the fourth to sixth grades. Their lessons and lesson objectives closely adhere to the guidelines outlined in California's most recent History-Social Science Framework and meet the linguistic and pedagogic needs of Glendale's ethnic minorities. The following discussion presents a summative description of the Framework and its overall intent for schools and school districts. The Framework's mandate, its "characteristics," and its "goals" and "strands" will be highlighted specifically, as will its particular objectives for a sixth-grade social studies curriculum.

The Framework

Described as a "consensus on history-social science education" (California State Department of Education, 1988, p. v) by the teachers, curriculum specialists, administrators, and faculty from institutions of higher education who designed it, the Framework is, in reality, much more. Above all, this document is a steering mechanism designed to influence the development of history-social science instructional materials at all levels, kindergarten through grade 12. Moreover, it is an effort to establish a "sequential curriculum, so that all of our children will develop

understanding and knowledge about their own nation and about other major civilizations of the world" (California State Department of Education, 1988, p. vii) Finally, and of particular interest to this study, the Framework is a motivational force stimulating teachers to unleash their pedagogical abilities in a variety of ways.

The Framework's Mandate

As was mentioned earlier, California's History-Social Science Framework was finalized in 1987 after undergoing numerous and extensive revisions by teachers, administrators, and curriculum writers knowledgeable in the field. The major objectives of this document were "to set forth, in an organized way, the knowledge and understanding that our students need to function intelligently now and in the future" (California State Department of Education, 1988, p. 3). Having drawn from the experience and insight gained from previous frameworks, this framework "offers a remarkable opportunity for school districts and teachers to develop new world history courses that examine major eras of the past in considerable detail and at a reasonably measured pace" (Dunn, 1990, p. 11). The following list of 17 characteristics portrays the overall objectives of the manuscript.

*(Those characteristics with an asterisk beside them have been incorporated into one or more of the six lesson plans presented later.)

The Framework's Characteristics

1. This framework is centered in the chronological study of history.

2. This framework proposes both an integrated and correlated approach to the teaching of history-social science.

*3. This framework emphasizes the importance of history as a story well told.

*4. This framework emphasizes the importance of enriching the study of history with the use of literature, both literature of the period and literature about the period.

5. This framework introduces a new curricular approach for the early grades (kindergarten through grade three).

*6. This framework emphasizes the importance of studying major historical events and periods in depth as opposed to superficial skimming of enormous amounts of material.

7. This framework proposes a sequential curriculum, one in which knowledge and understanding are built up in a carefully planned and systematic fashion from kindergarten through grade 12.

8. This framework incorporates a multicultural perspective throughout the history-social science curriuculum.

9. This framework increases the place of world history in the curriculum to three years (at grade six, seven, and ten), organized chronologically.

*10. This framework emphasizes the importance of the application of ethical understanding and civic virtue to public affairs.

*11. This framework encourages the development of civic and democratic values as an integral element of good citizenship.

12. This framework supports the frequent study and discussion of the fundamental principles embodied in the United States Constitution and the Bill of Rights.

*13. This framework encourages teachers to present controversial issues honestly and accurately within their historical or contemporary context.

*14. This framework acknowledges the importance of religion in human history.

*15. This framework proposes that critical thinking skills be included at every grade level.

*16. This framework supports a variety of content-appropriate teaching methods that engage students actively in the learning process.

17. This framework provides opportunities for students' participation in school and community service programs and activities.

Far more than being mandated objectives that educators must strive to attain, these characteristics should be viewed as distinctive guidelines from which to gain direction when designing history-social science lesson plans. The lesson plans presented later on in this manuscript have benefited greatly from these well-defined guiding principles.

Goals and Strands

In order to make the intent of the Framework more specific, the authors developed goals and curriculum strands which spell out, in detail, their objectives. Stated simply, these goals and strands are under three broad categories: knowledge and cultural understanding, including knowledge gained from all the social sciences; democratic understanding and civic values, including an understanding of our national identity, constitutional heritage, civic values, and rights and responsibilities; and skills attainment and social participation, including basic study skills, critical thinking skills, and participation skills that are essential for effective citizenship (California State Department of Education, 1988, p. 10). Each of the major headings found under the goals and curriculum strands section of the Framework are shown in Figure 3, which represents the important headings only and does not include

pertinent details. (For further clarification and more in-depth presentation of the Framework's goals and strands, see California State Department of Education 1988, p. 12-26).

The authors contend that these curriculum strands will unify the history-social science curriculum throughout all the grades, kindergarten through grade 12. Teachers and curriculum developers, therefore, are strongly reminded that

> these curriculum strands are a constant in every grade, not options to be added or dropped from one year to the next. In every grade, teachers will be expected to integrate and correlate these strands as part of their teaching of the history-social science curriculum. (California State Department of Education, 1988, p. 10-12)

The Framework does not overlook the needs and concerns of the State's enormous immigrant population.

> California's K-through-12 History-Social Science Framework is a detailed and carefully constructed plan of study. It makes room for a three-year study of world history and cultures and the study of ethnic groups in America. (Leo, 1989, p. 73)

James Becker, in his discussion of "curriculum considerations in Global Studies," declares California's History-Social Science Framework "a landmark set of guidelines for school-based curriculum development that can be used to promote citizen understanding of our increasingly diverse and interdependent world" (Becker, 1990, p. 73). Furthermore, the eighth characteristic in the above list speaks explicitly about incorporating a multicultural perspective throughout the history-social science curriculum (California State Department of Education, 1988, p. 5). In perusing the subsequent details of this characteristic, educators will be encouraged to

History-Social Science
K—12 Goals and Curriculum Strands

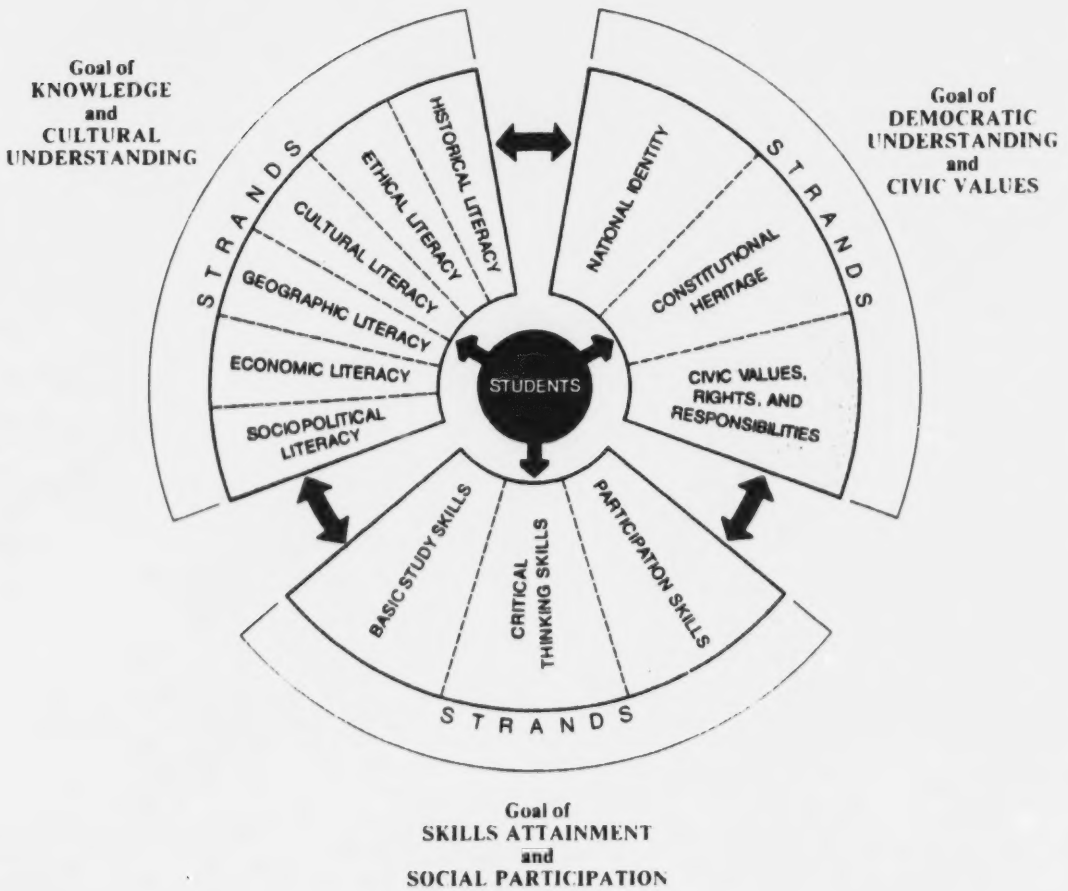

Figure 3. History-social science K-12 goals and curriculum strands (California State Department of Education, 1988, p. 11).

find the Framework's confident assertion that it:

> embodies the understanding that the national identity, the national heritage, and the national creed are pluralistic and that our national history is the complex story of many peoples and one nation, of e pluribus unum... (California State Department of Education, 1988, p. 5)

This is not a peripheral issue; it is central. Indeed, the Framework's authors understood the remarkably rich resources LEP students could bring to the social studies classroom. Their resources of personal experience, cultural knowledge and understanding were perceived to be invaluable as a supplement to textbooks and other materials. Thus, the Framework has strongly supported the notion that "the inclusion of multicultural activites and education in global issues at all grade levels is an important component in the social studies curriculum" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1986, p. 71).

The general goals and objectives of the History-Social Science Framework have been looked at briefly. Following is a more specific look at sixth grade world history objectives as put forth in the Framework.

The Framework's Mandate For Sixth Grade

The preeminent goal and objective of the Framework's sixth-grade social studies curriculum is to introduce and expose students to a number of the great ancient civilizations. Students, therefore, will explore those people and events that preceded the rise of major western and non-western civilizations known today. After studying these various civilizations of the ancient world, students will have developed some sense of the importance of

geographic location in the unfolding of human history. Consequently, students will be expected to:

> acquire a sense of the everyday life of the people; their problems and accomplishments; their relationships to the developing social, economic, and political structures of their society; the tools and technology they have developed; the art they created; the architecture they lived with; the literature produced by their finest poets, narrators, and writers; their explanations for natural phenomena; and ideas they developed that helped transform their world. (California State Department of Education, 1988, p. 57)

Moreover, students will have the opportunity to investigate, in some depth, the major contributions, achievements, and belief systems that have influenced the world community down to the present day. And lastly, students will be challenged to "develop an awareness of prehistoric people's chronological place on the historical time line" (California State Department of Education, 1988, p. 57)

Among the civilizations sixth-grade students will explore during the year are Mesopotamian, Hebrew, Greek, Indian, Roman, and Chinese. The particular objectives of each unit will not be discussed. However, the specific objectives the Framework mandates for any unit on Chinese civilization will be presented. The following 11 objectives were developed by the Glendale Unified School District's curriculum development team and represent the prime topics outlined in the Framework's discussion on China. Six of these objectives formed the basis of the lessons on ancient China found later in this manuscript. They are clearly in accord with the State's guidelines as well as national guidelines proposed by the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools:

> Topics that should receive particular emphasis are: the ways that early civilizations throughout the world developed systems of beliefs about the nature of the world, about beauty, and about universal notions of right and wrong, and how these and other beliefs resulted in the laws, religions, languages, economics, communication and technology that have shaped the modern world. (Curriculum Task Force, 1989, p. 10-11)

Glendale's History Objectives For Sixth Grade

1. Understand why ancient Chinese civilization flourished along the Yellow River (Hwang Ho).
2. Identify the many technological contributions of the ancient Chinese.
3. Understand how and why the use of terraces contributed to the development of agriculture.
4. Understand the structure and development of Chinese dynasties.
5. Learn about the development of the Chinese system of writing.
6. Learn why the Great Wall of China was built.
7. Understand what led to the unification of China under the Han Dynasty.
8. Survey the arts and literature of ancient China.
9. Understand how nature is portrayed in ancient Chinese art.
10. Understand how the teachings of Confucius influenced Chinese life.
11. Understand the significance of the Silk Road in creating exchange between the East and West.

Summary

It is important to note here that the Framework does not specify the number of lessons any one unit should include. Neither does it unequivocably state that there should be a lesson on art,

bronze, Chinese language, etc. It simply discusses the important events of the era, alerts the teacher to the more outstanding achievements of the civilization, and suggests what should be included in the unit. Thus, there is a great deal of leeway for curriculum developers. Some may want to incorporate fewer than 11 objectives, others more. It depends on what objectives they themselves perceive to be of greatest significance and, then, how or if they combine these objectives into one or more lessons. Overall, the 11 objectives stated above represent both a thorough and well-rounded appraisal of the key events in ancient Chinese civilization.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS: THE CASE FOR SHELTERED INSTRUCTION AND COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Knowing now what must be included in any history-social science curriculum, the problem yet remains: how can educators fashion and/or adapt the content of their lessons so that they are both understandable and relevant to students who have limited English proficiency. Two teaching strategies which have produced impressive results among LEP students are Sheltered Instruction and Cooperative Learning. These relatively recent instructional innovations do indeed enable teachers to present "intellectually demanding, abstract subject matter in a more understandable and accessible manner" (Sanchez, 1989, p. 1). Teachers who employ these strategies will not only find the task of communicating complex concepts greatly facilitated, they will without question, effect significant results in both subject matter comprehension as well as in increased language acquisition. The following discussion provides a well-documented defense for the utilization of both of these instructional practices. Sheltered instruction will be considered initially.

Sheltered Approach

Before delving into the actual rationale for employing a sheltered teaching strategy, it will be helpful to define what sheltered instruction is not and what it is. First, what it is not:

> Sheltered instruction is not submersion into English, nor a substitute for primary language instruction, nor is it the most appropriate program option for all LEP students. It is not 'watered down' instruction, nor 'remedial' instruction: It does not involve a less rigorous nor alternative curriculum. (Sanchez, 1989, p. 1)

In other words, sheltered instruction is not a deficient, second-class program initiated only to help slower, less competent students keep pace. On the contrary, sheltered instruction is an extremely inventive, decidedly effective means for instructors to provide "challenging content instruction for LEP students so they can master the material and at the same time expand their English language ability" (Schifini & Galvan, 1987, p. 7). Sheltered instruction, then, is a creative, sensible means of teaching mandatory subjects without leaving LEP students behind.

Why Sheltered?

Unquestionably, one of the strongest defenses for the implementation of sheltered instruction is its inherent use of "comprehensible input." Comprehensible input is defined as:

> language that contains input containing structures that are a bit beyond the acquirer's current level, or input containing i + 1. (Krashen, 1981(a), p. 58)

Thus, i + 1 is language which builds upon concepts or ideas already familiar to the students being taught. "Given messages we understand, language acquisition is nearly inevitable--our brains cannot help but acquire language" (Krashen & Biber, 1988, p. 19).

Comprehensibility is important because:

> it is through comprehension of the total communicative situation, including both verbal messages and the nonverbal significance

> of events, that the student comes to learn how to decode the target language and ultimately how to use it effectively. (Genesee, 1987, p. 180)

Krashen and Long (cited in Ellis, 1986, p. 157) also agree that "SLA (Second Language Acquisition) is dependent on the availability of comprehensible input before the learner's internal processing mechanism can work."

In his discussion of the input hypothesis, Krashen (1981(a), p. 65) suggests that an excellent source of comprehensible input is found in subject matter instruction. His input theory predicts that "second language acquisition will occur in subject matter classes taught in the second language if the child can follow and understand the lesson" (Krashen, 1981, p. 65). Put differently, if the subject matter material is indeed comprehensible, students will grasp the core content and, as a result, increase their English speaking ability. Thus it is through the appropriate planning of subject matter instruction, wrought full of comprehensible input, that language minority students are given a very practical, appealing means of grasping the core curriculum.

Context-Embedded Language

Sheltered instruction's rich provision of context provides yet another strong rationale for its implementation in ethnically and linguistically mixed classrooms. According to some scholars, LEP students have been largely hindered in their development of academic skills simply because of the type of instruction they

have received, that which is "context-reduced" rather than "context-embedded."

> One reason why language minority students have failed to develop high levels of academic skills is because their initial instruction has emphasized context-reduced communication, since instruction has been through English and unrelated to their prior out-of-school experiences. (Cummins, 1981, p. 15)

Although instruction in students' native language may not always be feasible or practical, certainly providing relevant context-based learning opportunities is. For example, as a means of teaching a health lesson on common physical ailments, an instructor may role play a doctor's visit to cover the various terms in an appropriate context. LEP students need much more than grammatical structures and vocabulary in order to comprehend new material. They need context in order to fully grasp what is being presented. Therefore, it is imperative that classroom teachers not only provide understandable input, but also provide an appropriate context through which the input can be grasped. The following presentation will reveal how sheltered instruction can effectively produce meaningful context for the sheltered classroom.

Cummins' communicative activities continuum (see Figure 4) explains the importance of utilizing context-embedded language in second language or content area classrooms. In Cummins' model, "communicative proficiency can be conceptualized along two continuums" (Cummins, 1981, p. 11). One continuum depicts the amount of contextual support provided for the learner in addition to the language itself (context-reduced versus context-embedded), and

the other signifies the cognitive complexity of the language (cognitively demanding versus cognitively undemanding).

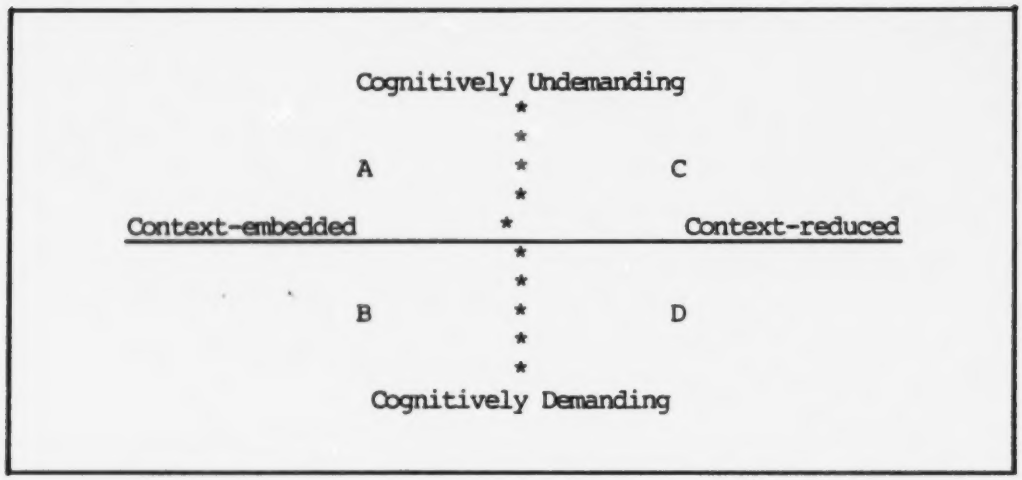

Figure 4. Range of contextual support and degree of cognitive involvement in communicative activities (Cummins, 1981, p. 12).

Cummins refers to "context-embedded" language as that which is buttressed by a wsde variety of clues (gestures, intonation, situational cues, etc.), and "context-reduced" language as that which has minimal or no extra support, "so that everything depends on the words themselves" (Curtain & Pesola, 1988, p. 98). Consider a history lesson where the teacher allows for maximum student involvement either through touching real artifacts, simulating an actual historical event, or discussing the historical event's significance today. Certainly this would offer the likelihood of more context-embedded language than, say, a lesson taught simply through the lecture approach. Cummins' model also suggests

that language proficiency can be considered in terms of cognitive involvement, or, as the vertical continuum depicts, language that is cognitively undemanding (easily processed) versus language that is cognitively demanding (not easily processed).

The quadrants in Figure 4 are useful in determining how LEP students might perform in various subjects of a given school curriculum based on the amount of contextual support received and cognitive difficulty involved in each subject. With more difficult subjects, teachers should increase the amount of contextual support to meet students' needs. With less difficult subjects, or already context-embedded subjects, teachers need not make many instructional adjustments.

Quadrant A (Context-embedded and cognitively undemanding)

ESL (beginning level)
Art, music, physical education
Basic map skills

Note: The curriculum here is not too difficult to process, and it is usually surrounded by numerous props, visuals, and gestures.

Quadrant B (Context-embedded and cognitively demanding)

Math computations
Science experiments
Social studies projects

Note: Activities in this quadrant employ hands-on computations, experiments, and projects in order to make the material more context-embedded.

Quadrant C (Context-reduced and cognitively undemanding)

Reading
Writing
Social studies
Science
Math

Note: These subjects have been altered or "sheltered" in some way so as to make them comprehensible to LEP students.

Quadrant D (Context-reduced and cognitively demanding)

Reading
Writing
Social studies
Science
Math

Note: These subjects have not been altered, but are indicative of traditional, mainstream schooling and tests, all of which are usually stripped of context clues and therefore difficult to process (Sanchez, 1989, p. 2).

It is apparent, then, that simply exposing students to the core curriculum is not enough when it comes to educating language minorities. In order to adequately train LEP students in the content areas, teachers must supply extensive amounts of comprehensible input through the appropriate use of relevant contextual clues. Teachers must strive to move the curriculum in Quadrant D to Quadrant C, thereby retaining the curriculum's integrity but "sheltering" the material so students can more easily master it.

To summarize, two essential characteristics of a sheltered instructional format have been previewed: comprehensible input and appropriate contextual clues or "context-embeddedness." These two components formulate the bases of sheltered instruction.

The How To's of Sheltered Instruction

The question must now be asked: How does an instructor encode academic content so that it is both comprehensible and contextually relevant to LEP students? What are some of the key instructional innovations necessary for classroom teachers to shelter complex subject matter lessons?

In the following discussion, three essential ingredients of a sheltered instructional approach will be addressed and explained in light of their use in the sheltered history lessons presented later in this work.

Linguistic Adjustments

First of all, instructors must make linguistic adjustments in their lessons in order to facilitate the comprehensibility of the material. It has been shown that "The use of simplified, redundant, and slower speech can serve to facilitate comprehension by second language learners in much the same way that it is thought to do in the case of first language learners" (Snow & Ferguson, 1978, cited in Genesee, 1987, p. 181). Simplified or redundant teacher talk, in addition to being slower, includes the use of limited vocabulary and sentence length (or complexity), repetition, emphasizing, and explaining (of key concepts). As is noted in each of the lessons on ancient China, necessary vocabulary items are listed, defined, and explained relative to their context. (Note the simplistic nature of each of the vocabulary definitions.) This is done at the start of each lesson and essentially lays the

foundation for the content that follows. Furthermore, all of the reading selections found throughout the lessons are simplified and/or adapted in order to facilitate comprehension (see skit in Lesson III, riddles in Lesson IV, poems in Lesson V, and story in Lesson VI for concrete examples). Even difficult pieces of literature, such as the poems found in Lesson V (Chinese Literature) were successfully adapted to strengthen comprehensibility. Figure 5 provides an example of such an adaptation.

Original	Adapted
She sought her n The swallow tak We went togeth Till parting d And the tears	She desired her native land again. The swallow takes its ragged flight. We went together day and night, Until parting took her from my sight And the tears fell down like rain.
She went her Now up, now And oh!--th The form th And the te	She went her native land to seek. Now up, now down the swallow flies. And oh!--the last of tender ties, The form that fades from aching eyes, And the tears running down my cheek.
Around, ab She fared And when The empty And great grie	Around, about the swallows dart She went into a far country, And when I vainly tried to The empty land laughed at And great sadness settled o

Figure 5. Sorrow "original version" and Sorrow "adapted version" (Adapted from Cranmer-Byng, 1905, p. 46).

foundation for the content that follows. Furthermore, all of the reading selections found throughout the lessons are simplified and/or adapted in order to facilitate comprehension (see skit in Lesson III, riddles in Lesson IV, poems in Lesson V, and story in Lesson VI for concrete examples). Even difficult pieces of literature, such as the poems found in Lesson V (Chinese Literature) were successfully adapted to strengthen comprehensibility. Figure 5 provides an example of such an adaptation.

Original	Adapted
She sought her native land again. The swallow takes its ragged flight. We went together day and night, Till parting drew her from my sight And the tears fell down like rain.	She desired her native land again. The swallow takes its ragged flight. We went together day and night, Until parting took her from my sight And the tears fell down like rain.
She went her native land to seek. Now up, now down the swallow flies. And oh!--the last of tender ties, The form that fades from aching eyes And the tears coursing down my cheek.	She went her native land to seek. Now up, now down the swallow flies. And oh!--the last of tender ties, The form that fades from aching eyes, And the tears running down my cheek.
Around, about the swallows dart She fared into a far countree, And when I vainly sought to see The empty landscape mocked at me, And great grief settled on my heart.	Around, about the swallows dart She went into a far country, And when I vainly tried to see The empty land laughed at me, And great sadness settled on my heart.

Figure 5. Sorrow "original version" and Sorrow "adapted version" (Adapted from Cranmer-Byng, 1905, p. 46).

Regardless of the complexity, the primary goal of any sheltered lesson is to effectively minimize the amount of complex terminology one employs in executing the lesson. Clearly then, adapted speech, whether written or spoken, plays a prominent role in strengthening comprehension in the sheltered classroom.

Hands-On Learning Tasks

Another essential instructional innovation for the sheltered classroom involves the extensive use of "hands-on learning tasks" (Sanchez, 1989, p. 5). Hands-on learning tasks refer to activities that enable students to do or complete some educational objective. Within this setting, "students are active participants in accomplishing something, in producing some product which reflects their learnings" (Sanchez, 1989, p. 14).

There is a wide variety of hands-on learning tasks that may be employed in a sheltered setting. Some of the most frequently cited tasks include making graphs, maps, or charts; doing science experiments; conducting surveys; and authoring a book. Other tasks that encourage the participation of active students in the learning experience can be found in the lessons that follow. For example, in Lesson I (Confucius), students are instructed to produce their own skit depicting the importance of some of Confucius' beliefs about education, filial piety, and political integrity. Rather than simply view the skits, students are given the chance to act them out. Later, they are encouraged to write their own ideas

about how society can be improved. Here, they are given a chance to apply Confucius' age-old philosophy to today's world.

Lesson II activities, in addition to offering students the opportunity to actually write their own list of ten Chinese characters, also involve them in corporately producing their own cave writing sample (cave art). Other activities pertinent to their respective lessons include acting out a drama which recounts the building of the the Great Wall (Lesson III), reproducing inventions initially made by Chinese inventors (Lesson IV), writing a letter to console an abandoned princess (Lesson V), and drawing scenes likely to be found along the Silk Road (Lesson VI). Hands-on learning tasks, in a very meaningful sense, provide instructors with tangible, creative, and motivationally appealing alternatives to the lecture approach in teaching. Not only will students learn as they engage in such activities, they will doubtless enjoy the learning process as well.

Lesson Format

A third, and equally important instructional innovation for the sheltered classroom pertains to the lesson format itself. Lessons should be designed so as to follow a fairly consistent progression. Sanchez (1989, p. 5), in her discussion of lesson plan format, suggests that lessons should consistently provide "into, through, and beyond activities" as a means of engaging students in a variety of expressive, realistic language encounters. Her reasoning is clear. Research has shown that positive interactions

among students in bilingual programs result in increased self-esteem and higher academic achievement. The work of Aronson, 1978; Johnson, 1984; Johnson, 1981; Sharan, 1980; and Slavin, 1980, 1983, have been cited in Beyond Language, 1986, pp. 243-244. Other studies have shown that student-teacher interaction characterized by low anxiety, positive motivation, and self-confidence increases second language acquisition (Stevick, 1976; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; and Krashen, 1981b). Lessons which provide such stimulating interactive language experiences include pre-lesson activities (the "into" phase) which are designed to ascertain students' prior knowledge and experiences, core activities which present the actual "meat" of the lesson, often accompanied by specific hands-on tasks (the "through" phase), and post-lesson activities (the "beyond" phase) which help students synthesize and discuss their learnings and which enable students to build a bridge from this material to new material that follows (Sanchez, 1989, p. 5).

Glendale's sheltered/cooperative lesson plan format includes a progression of six steps which enable students to readily engage in "into, through, and beyond" activities. The lesson begins with the "motivation" stage which is designed as a pre-lesson activity in order to gauge students' prior knowledge and experience. Motivational activities incorporated into the lessons on ancient China include a brainstorming exercise (Lesson I), various guessing games (Lessons III, IV, and VI), a matching game (Lesson II), and recitation of a poetry selection (Lesson V). In the instances above, students are given their first exposure to the material

in low-anxiety, game-like situations which "provide an intense point of concentration, the objective of which is not language" (Terrell, 1981, p. 136). In other words, the students' focus is taken off of the language itself and put completely upon what they are doing, or is some cases, what they are playing.

The "input," "checking for understanding," "guided practice," and "closure" phases of the lesson bring students face-to-face with the actual content being presented (input phase). Then they move into a period of comprehension assessment (checking for understanding phase) and finally engage in "the higher level thinking skills of analysis and synthesis" (guided practice and closure phases) (GUSD Title VII Project Staff, 1990, p. 14). These stages are characterized by assorted "hands-on" activities such as dramatic productions (Lessons I and III), group projects (Lessons II and IV), group discussions (all lessons), debates (Lessons III and IV), and art projects (Lesson II).

The "independent practice/extension" phase of Glendale's lesson format is generally considered optional. Teachers, at this stage, provide students with opportunities to carry their learning "beyond" the classroom. Examples of such activities include conducting an interview (Lessons I and IV), collecting pertinent photographs (Lesson III), having a "trade fair" (Lesson VI), sharing native literature (Lesson V), and inviting experts to speak to the class on a particular subject (Lesson II). These are just a few of the practices in which teachers can encourage learning beyond the actual lesson itself.

Summary

In conclusion, three essential components of a sheltered instructional approach have been delineated in this section: linguistic adjustments, hands-on learning tasks, and strategically designed lesson plans. Each of these components, it has been shown, is essential to reaching the overriding goals of any sheltered lesson: comprehensibility of the material and embeddedness within an appropriate, realistic context. Furthermore, we have taken an informative, close-up view of Glendale's lesson plan format (using the lessons on ancient China) in order to tangibly view examples of consistent, logically ordered lesson plans.

Cooperative Learning

A discussion on sheltered instructional procedures would not be complete without some mention of cooperative learning which "by nature of its interactional approach to learning, is also a sheltered approach" (GUSD Special Project's Staff, 1987, p. 12-22). The Random House Dictionary defines "cooperative" as: "working or acting together willingly for a common purpose" (Random House Dictionary, 1987, p. 167). The Bilingual Educational Handbook defines cooperative learning as follows:

> Cooperative learning refers to the structuring of the classroom so that students work together in small teams toward common learning goals rather than as individual agents in unspoken competition with each other. (California State Department of Education, 1990(a), p. 44)

These definitions succinctly describe the major objective of cooperative learning as it is being implemented across the state:

to give ethnically and linguistically diverse students an opportunity to work and learn together in small collaborative teams.

Peer tutoring, jigsaw formations, cooperative projects, cooperative/individualized grouping, and cooperative interaction are five variations of cooperative learning which preserve the integrity of the cooperative learning principle. Each is designed to promote "positive interdependence" (Kagan, 1989-90, p. 9) whereby achievement of the individual translates into achievement for the group. Several characteristics that distinguish one method of cooperative learning from another will be discussed in the following sections.

Peer Tutoring

Peer Tutoring is a format designed to bolster the likelihood that students will help each other master predetermined content. In this setting, teammates often drill each other (using flashcards or worksheets) with the goal of "bringing each member up to his or her highest level of proficiency" (Kagan, 1986, p. 242). Peer tutoring methods are often used with "high consensus," relatively simplistic academic tasks such as acquiring math or spelling facts. The obvious strength of this format is in affording students the opportunity to act as teachers and guide others in their learning. For example, the guided practice phase of Lesson II (Chinese Writing) offers an excellent opportunity for Asian students to tutor their fellow classmates in the art of Chinese writing. Thus, students will feel they are actively contributing to the learning process

of their peers while receiving further instruction from their teammates at the same time.

Jigsaw

Another frequently used cooperative method is termed the "Jigsaw." This methodology is founded on the principles of interdependence and division of labor in that each team member is given primary responsibility for a particular part of the lesson. Teammates in a Jigsaw setting leave their teams to join up with members from other teams who have the same subject matter to explore. Working together in these "expert groups," the students then diligently attempt to master their topics. After the work is done, the students return to their respective groups in order to teach their fellow team members in their area of expertise. Lessons I (Confucius) and V (Chinese Literature) give students the opportunity to engage in a "jigsaw" learning environment. In one instance, individuals become "experts" on a particular Confucian value and then report their findings to their original groups. Likewise, "experts" who have analyzed (in some depth) a particular piece of ancient Chinese literature then return to their teams and take turns teaching their teammates about their sections (Slavin, 1991, p. 75). In other words, "each team member is dependent on his or her teammates to provide the information on the other portions of the learning unit" (Kagan, 1986, p. 242). Furthermore, "each individual is responsible for mastering the whole learning unit" (Kagan, 1986, p. 242). The obvious strengths of the Jigsaw lie

in the fact that: (1) each student becomes an "expert" in a particular area, (2) each student then has the responsibility of instructing his or her teammates (forcing him or her to really know the material), and (3) each student receives instruction on the learning unit entirely from his peers, thus making it more interesting and perhaps more relevant. And, finally, as Slavin (1991) so aptly puts it: "Since the only way students can learn sections other than their own is to listen carefully to their teammates, they are motivated to support and show interest in one another's work" (p. 75).

Cooperative Projects

"Cooperative Projects"--most often used with "low-consensus complex academic content" (Kagan, 1986, p. 242)--is another example of a cooperative learning technique. Here, students work together in order to finish a task such as a written paper, a mural, a skit, or a group project (science, history, geography, etc.). "Teamwork in the Cooperative Projects methods consists of cooperative planning, coordinated research, analysis and synthesis of ideas, and/or debate among team members as to the meaning of materials and how to report or present them" (Kagan, 1986, p. 242). Both Lesson III (Great Wall) and Lesson IV (Chinese Inventions) afford excellent opportunities for students to engage in cooperative projects. Performing the Great Wall skit necessitates group planning and cooperation. Similarly, reproducing the various Chinese inventions requires coordinated organization as well as collaborative analysis and synthesis of varying ideas. The greatest single advantage

of cooperative projects is achieved by giving students maximum responsibility for what they study and how they study it. Here again, students see how they, too, play a part in their ultimate academic development.

Cooperative/Individualized Grouping

For those teachers who are somewhat apprehensive or reluctant to implement a full-fledged cooperative learning methodology, the "Cooperative/Individualized Grouping" may be more appealing. In this arrangement, "students progress at their own rate through individualized learning materials" (Kagan, 1986, p. 243). However, just as in other cooperative techniques, their progress contributes to a team grade, thereby rewarding each student through the accomplishments of his or her teammates. Because the learning units are designed to be self-explanatory, the students may often work alone. Each team receives "a common group grade based on the individual progress of all the members of the team" (Kagan, 1986, p. 243). Due to its tendency to place greater emphasis on individual learning, Cooperative/Individualized Grouping was not used in the lessons on ancient China.

Cooperative Interaction

Unlike Cooperative/Individualized Grouping, Cooperative Interaction has no graded group project, and each individual must complete the assignment for himself or herself. However, the actual completion of a learning unit necessitates cooperative interaction. This approach is distinguished from the Jigsaw approach because

"all students have equal access to and responsibility for all learning materials" (Kagan, 1986, p. 243). It is also different from the "Cooperative/Individualized Grouping" because "the materials are group-paced and all students complete the same assignments" (Kagan, 1986, p. 243). Lesson VI (The Silk Road) provides an excellent occasion for cooperative interaction. Upon completing their discussion of the challenges and difficulties encountered by travelers on the Silk Road, students individually produce their own list of challenges. Thus, students cooperatively interact in order to complete their individual assignments.

Positive Outcomes of Cooperative Learning

Results of extensive research indicate that cooperative learning produces positive outcomes among students in a number of areas including: academic achievement, ethnic relations, prosocial development (encouraging social interaction), and increased liking for class, school, learning, and self. In his discussion of the effectiveness of cooperative learning, Genesee (1987) reports that student-to-student interaction not only provides much valuable comprehensible input, it also provides an excellent source of language modelling for limited English speakers.

> If academic tasks are selected and structured carefully, then those students who have already acquired the language skills necessary for task performance, be they native speakers or proficient non-native speakers, can serve as language models and teachers for non-proficient speakers. (Genesee, 1987, p. 182)

Further research on the benefits of cooperative learning suggests that "the SLA process is facilitated when students are asked to

work within groups that require negotiation of meaning in the second language" (Milk, 1990, p. 414). With this in mind, let us now review some of the wide-ranging data that support the use of cooperative learning methodologies.

First of all, as it pertains to academic achievement, studies done by Johnson, Maruyama, Nelson, Skon and Slavin (cited in Beyond Language, 1986, p. 244) show that cooperative learning is superior to traditional methods, especially those variations which use group rewards based on individual achievement. "When group goals and individual accountability are used, achievement effects of cooperative learning are consistently positive; 37 of 44 experimental/control comparisons of at least four weeks duration have found significantly positive effects, and none have favored traditional methods" (Slavin, 1991, p. 71). Further studies reveal that there have been "strong achievement gains among minority pupils in cooperative classrooms" (Kagan, 1986, p. 245). The achievement gains have occurred for both Anglos and minorities, not at the expense of one or the other. According to studies done by Aronson et al., Slavin, and Slavin & Oicle (cited in Beyond Language, 1986, p. 245), Anglos tend to exhibit only slightly greater academic gains in cooperative classrooms compared to traditional classrooms. However, minority students show considerably greater gains in cooperative learning environments to traditional environments. In large cities with increasingly ethnically mixed populations, these results have very important implications for the future of academic instruction.

They indicate that in order to meet the needs of these students, teachers will need to break from traditional teaching methodologies and implement necessary changes.

Case Studies In Effectiveness Of Cooperative Learning

Let us now turn to the possible effects which cooperative learning may have (and has had) upon two ethnic minorities: Japanese and Hispanic students. I have chosen these two groups for different reasons. On the one hand, because I work closely with a number of Japanese students (adult and children), I have gained some insight into their culture and learning strategies and thus can speak about them with a certain degree of knowledge. On the other hand, although I have never taught Hispanics, I realize the importance of gaining insight into their cultural traditions and learning styles. It is hoped that, the following information will be helpful for those who are presently instructing students in these minority groups.

Japanese Students

From what I have heard and observed in the homes of my own Japanese students, the Japanese are a group-oriented society. Starting in the home, continuing through their years of education, and culminating in the corporate world, Japanese are taught to work together for the benefit of the group, not the individual. Cooperative learning (as defined on page 42), "working or acting together willingly for a common purpose," is not only an integral part of the Japanese educational system, it is very much a part of the culture as a whole. Cooperation is highly valued in Japanese

society and, according to one of my students, "is of utmost importance." Edward Hall (1976), points out that among Japanese "there is a deep need to be close, and it is only when they are close that they are comfortable" (p. 66). This intimacy, he says, begins at home but extends much further into the society at large. According to Hall (1976):

> Most Japanese feel quite uncomfortable (deep down inside) about the ceremonial, low-context, institutionalized side of life. Their principal drive is to move from the 'stand on ceremony' side toward the homey, comfortable, warm, intimate, friendly side. (p. 68)

For Japanese students coming to America, finding cooperative learning methods in our public schools would be a most welcome sight. Not only would cooperative learning environments provide them with an atmosphere within which they could be comfortable and secure, but such environments would also provide them with an avenue to develop social intimacy among their peers.

Teachers apparently want to make their classrooms as comfortable as possible for newly arrived immigrants. Interviews done by California Tomorrow Immigrant Students Project appear to underscore the importance of implementing collaborative teaching approaches. After interviewing 17 classroom teachers about what they perceived to be the core elements of teaching in ethnically diverse classroom, the staff of California Tomorrow found unanimous agreement among teachers regarding the importance of cooperative learning. A list of the elements that seemed to represent the common core of those classrooms studied included the need to, "create a student centered

classroom in which students learn from each other, with group work and interactive activities" (Olsen & Mullen, 1990, p. 57).

Of course, to assert that Japanese students will automatically flourish in a foreign cooperative learning environment is a bit presumptuous. Some constraints are necessary. According to many of the parents of my Japanese students, a cooperative learning situation can be most effective if the groups are given strong direction and consistent oversight by the teacher. Thus, properly trained teachers in schools that implement cooperative learning strategies, can enable Japanese children to make significant progress academically, socially, and emotionally.

Hispanic Students

Some very important findings regarding the effects of cooperative learning methods upon Hispanic students have been compiled over the years. Some researchers have observed that there is an "incompatibility of cultures or a 'school-home discontinuity' with regard to Mexican-Americans in school" (Kagan, 1986, p. 267). In 1982, Luis Laosa, in his "general continuity-discontinuity hypothesis," brought out evidence that revealed a discrepancy between parent and teacher communication styles. This discrepancy, he believed, "may be partially responsible for the lower achievement and higher drop-out rate among Mexican-Americans compared to Anglos" (cited in Kagan, 1986, p. 267). Laosa goes on to say that "inquire-based" teaching methods, so prevalent in our schools, are compatible with parental teaching styles in Anglo homes but

not so in Mexican-American homes. Some years before Laosa compiled his research, Ramirez and Casteneda (1974) proposed that the learning, incentive, relational, and communication styles of Mexican-Americans are in opposition to traditional Anglo educational practices (cited in Kagan, 1986, pp. 267-268). In other words, because there is such a strong sense of mutual dependence and cooperative achievement essential to relationships in traditional Mexican-American culture, the idea of "achievement through individual competition" nurtured in our schools works contrary to what these students have been taught. Mexican-American students as well as students from other cultures which stress the importance and need for cooperation are, therefore, at a significant disadvantage when faced with our traditional classroom environment.

To continue to rely on certain classroom structures that undermine strong cultural values and the psychological stability of certain minority students will only encourage more internal conflict, alienation, and even dropping out. Therefore, educators must recognize the need for creative change, and implement (as many schools are already doing) cooperative learning methodologies in school districts where minority populations are prevalent.

Conclusion

Without question, California has already made great strides in educating its ever-expanding ethnic population. The Glendale Unified School District, as described above, has risen to the challenge of providing academically excellent educational alternatives

for its language minority students. In keeping with state guidelines and in its desire to offer quality interaction for its LEP population, GUSD has developed an exemplary sheltered instructional program that is recognized by educators across the state. Furthermore, in response to the recently adopted California History-Social Science Framework, innovative GUSD teachers have designed curricula to successfully match objectives set forth in the document while adhering to state mandates regarding language minority students. Some evidence of these curricular innovations can be seen in the lessons on ancient China (Appendices E through J).

Sheltered instructional strategies coupled with cooperative learning techniques have furnished California educators with appropriate pedagogic innovations necessary for meeting the educational needs of their minority populations. Together, these teaching strategies have produced favorable academic, social, and emotional results among various ethnic groups (Slavin, 1991; Kagan, 1986; McGroarty, 1992; and Richard-Amato & Snow, 1992). As a result, students across the state are not only mastering subject matter content and hastening their acquisition of English, they are undeniably enjoying the process as well.

Has California's challenge been adequately met? Are the needs of language minority students being properly addressed? Yes and no. On the one hand, school districts such as Glendale have answered the call for creative educational alternatives for its students. Other school districts have, no doubt, also done so. Administrators, principals, and teachers are all taking appropriate steps to

meet the glaring needs before them. However, a large percentage of schools and school districts remain, as Olsen (1988, p. 6) so aptly put it, "woefully unprepared and inadequate to address needs."

The challenge does indeed remain, and, as demographic trends suggest, it will remain with us well into the next century. Educational reforms will continue to be needed, particularly in areas where language minority students pervade the classroom. Exemplary programs, such as those based on cooperative learning now being followed in Glendale, can provide a model for other school districts.

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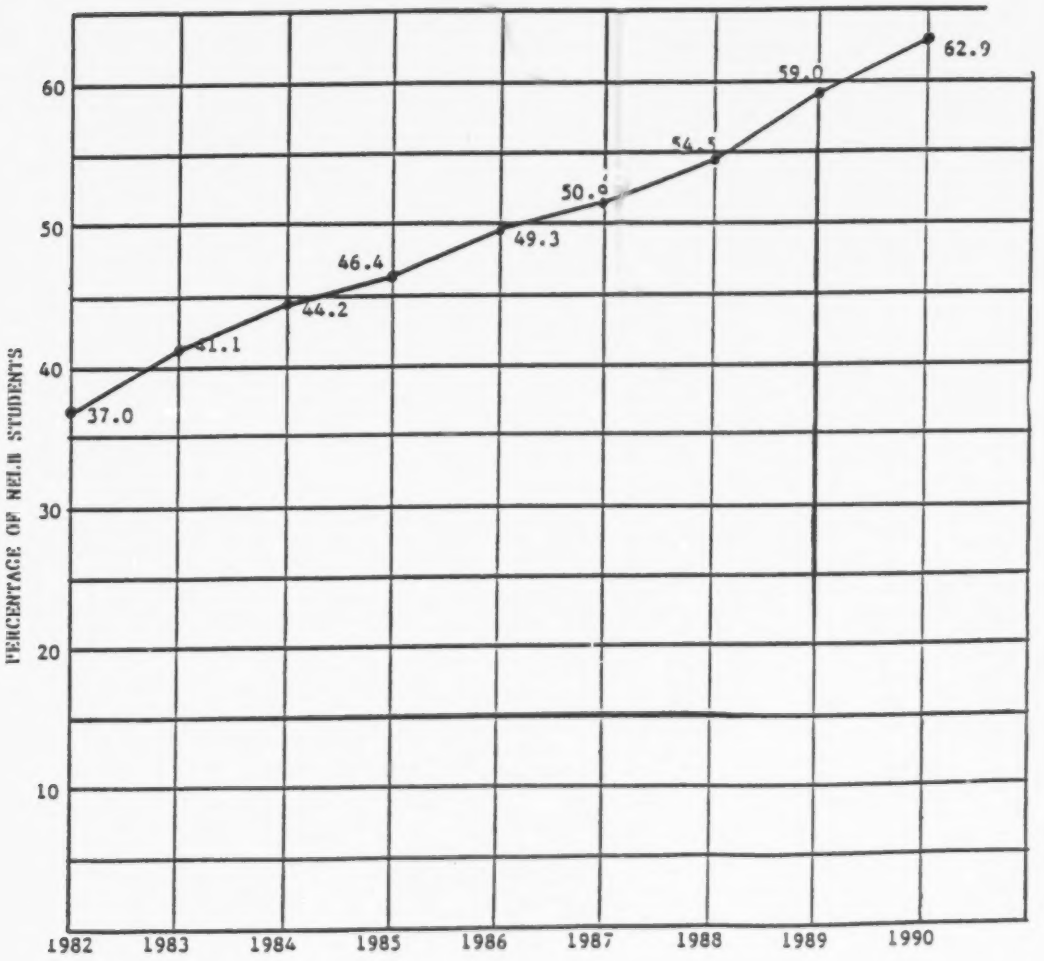
APPENDIX A

GLENDALE UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

Percentage Of Total District Enrollment That Are
Non-English Language Background Students (LEP/FEP)



Source: Sanchis, R. A. (1990). Language census report, spring 1990, (Report No. 1, p. 123). Glendale: Glendale Unified School District.

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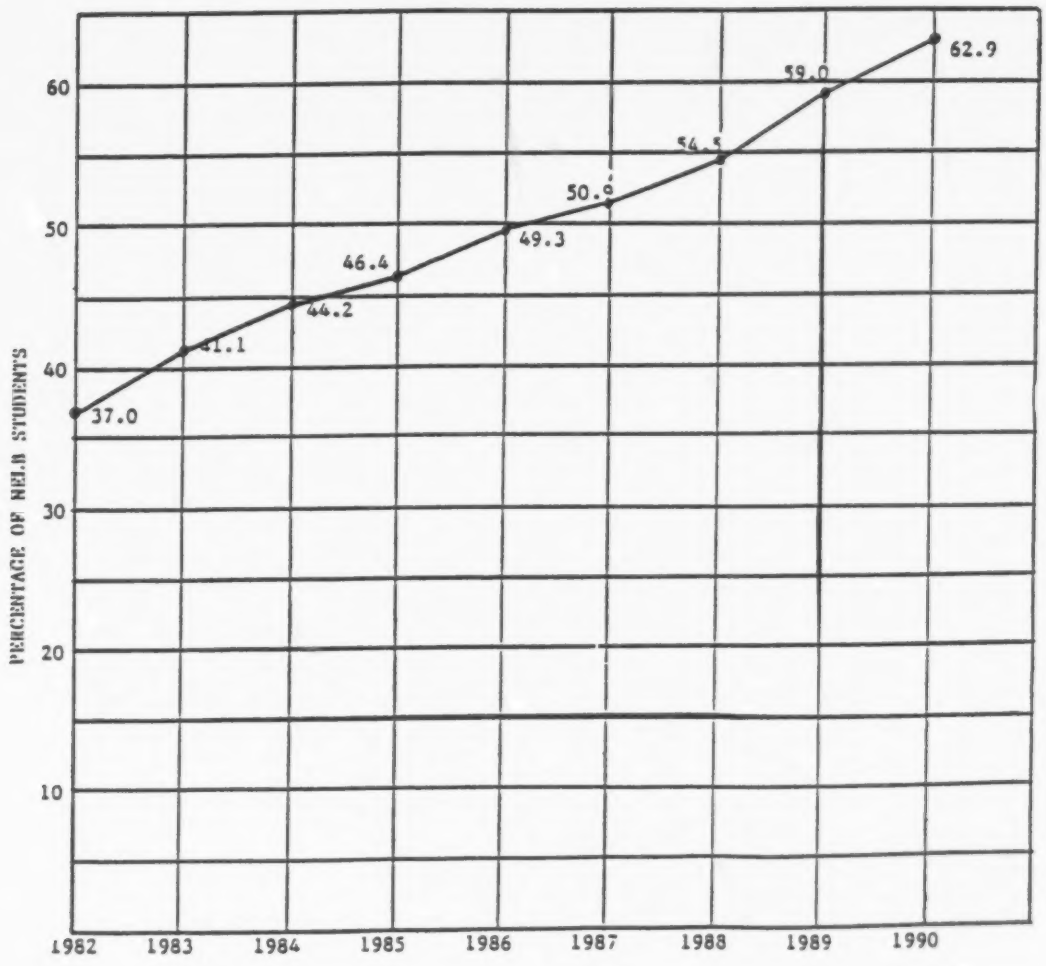
GLENDALE UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT

Percentage Of Total District Enrollment That Are
Non-English Language Background Students (LEP/FEP)



Source: Sanchis, R. A. (1990). Language census report, spring 1990, (Report No. 1, p. 123). Glendale: Glendale Unified School District.

APPENDIX B

GLENDALE UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICT LANGUAGE CENSUS

REPORT--SCHOOL DATA SPRING, 1990

Language listed individually: (in order of greatest number of speakers LEP and FEP in the District)

		LEP	FEP	TOTAL
1.	Armenian	4,859	889	5,748
2.	Spanish	3,927	1,155	5,082
3.	Korean	1,209	870	2,079
4.	Pilipino/Tagalog	378	293	671
5.	Vietnamese	156	134	290
6.	Persian/Farsi	183	97	280
7.	Arabic	174	69	243
8.	Cantonese	63	100	163
9.	Japanese	60	42	102
10.	Mandarin	34	47	81
11.	Thai	36	28	64
12.	Portuguese	47	9	56
13.	Rumanian	27	21	48
14.	Greek	14	26	40
15.	Assyrian	29	7	36
16.	Italian	19	12	31
17.	Gujarati	12	15	27
18.	Russian	16	10	26
19.	German	9	16	25
20.	French	11	11	22

Other languages spoken by fewer than 20 students:

21.	Turkish	19	40.	Punjabi	5
22.	Indonesian	18	41.	Amoy	4
23.	Polish	17	42.	Kannada	4
24.	Urdu	16	43.	Native American	4
25.	Yugoslavian	16	44.	Serbian	4
26.	Taiwanese	14	45.	Swedish	4
27.	Bulgarian	13	46.	Burmese	3
28.	Hungarian	13	47.	Danish	3
29.	Czech	11	48.	Dari	3
30.	Hindi	11	49.	Ilocano	3
31.	Dutch	10	50.	Ukranian	3
32.	Lithuanian	10	51.	Cepuano	2
33.	Marathi	9	52.	Norwegian	2
34.	Visayan	9	53.	Pompango	2
35.	Cambodian	6	54.	Samoan	2
36.	Hebrew	6	55.	Estonian	1
37.	Bengali	5	56.	Malay	1
38.	Croatian	5	57.	Sinhalese	1
39.	Finnish	5	58.	Tamil	1

Source: Sanchis, R. A. (1990). Language census report, spring 1990, (Report No. 1, p. 127). Glendale: Glendale Unified School District.

APPENDIX C

DISTRICTS RANKED BY ENROLLMENT

OF LEP STUDENTS SPRING 1985, ALL LANGUAGES COMBINED

District Name	Number of LEP Students Enrolled	% of Total State LEP Enrollment	% of Total District LEP Enrollment
Los Angeles Unified	134,171	25.6	23.8
San Francisco Unified	18,787	3.6	29.8
Santa Ana Unified	16,763	3.2	47.5
San Diego Unified	14,234	2.7	12.8
Long Beach Unified	11,524	2.2	18.7
Oakland Unified	9,175	1.8	17.8
Stockton City Unified	7,940	1.5	29.5
Fresno Unified	7,854	1.5	14.4
Montebello Unified	7,496	1.4	25.3
Compton Unified	6,305	1.2	23.5
Sweetwater Union High	6,106	1.2	25.2
Glendale Unified	6,027	1.2	30.1
Pomona Unified	5,217	1.0	24.1
Garden Grove Unified	4,747	0.9	13.0
Sacramento City Unified	4,717	0.9	11.0
East Side Union High	4,596	0.9	20.5
San Jose Unified	4,423	0.8	14.5
Pajaro Valley Joint Unified	4,133	0.8	30.9
Calexico Unified	3,679	0.7	72.1
ABC Unified	3,619	0.7	16.4
	281,513	53.8%	

Source: Olsen, L. (1988). Crossing the schoolhouse border: Immigrant students and the California public schools, p. 16. San Francisco, CA: California Tomorrow.

APPENDIX D

STAGES OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Speech emerges in natural stages during the acquisition process. The length of time in each stage varies from student to student. Forcing students to produce speech that is more complete than their acquired competence will only slow down the process.

a. Pre-production
   * Students communicate with gestures and actions. Absence of oral production is not to be taken for absence of acquisition.
   * Lessons focus on listening comprehension.
   * Lessons build receptive vocabulary.

b. Early production
   * Students speak using one or two words or short phrases.
   * Lessons expand receptive vocabulary.
   * Activities are designed to motivate students to produce vocabulary which they already understand.

c. Speech emergence
   * Students speak in longer phrases and complete sentences.
   * Lessons continue to expand receptive vocabulary.
   * Activities are designed to promote higher levels of language use.

d. Intermediate fluency
   * Students engage in conversation and produce connected narrative.
   * Lessons continue to expand receptive vocabulary.
   * Activities are designed to develop higher levels of language use in content areas.
   * Reading and writing activities are incorporated into lessons.

Source: Glendale Unified School District Special Project's Staff. (1987). LEP handbook: Edcuational program for language minority students, p. 12-4. Glendale: Author.

APPENDIX E

LESSON I--EARLY RELIGIOUS TRADITIONS

Sheltered /Cooperative Lesson Plan

History Date: 551-479 B.C.

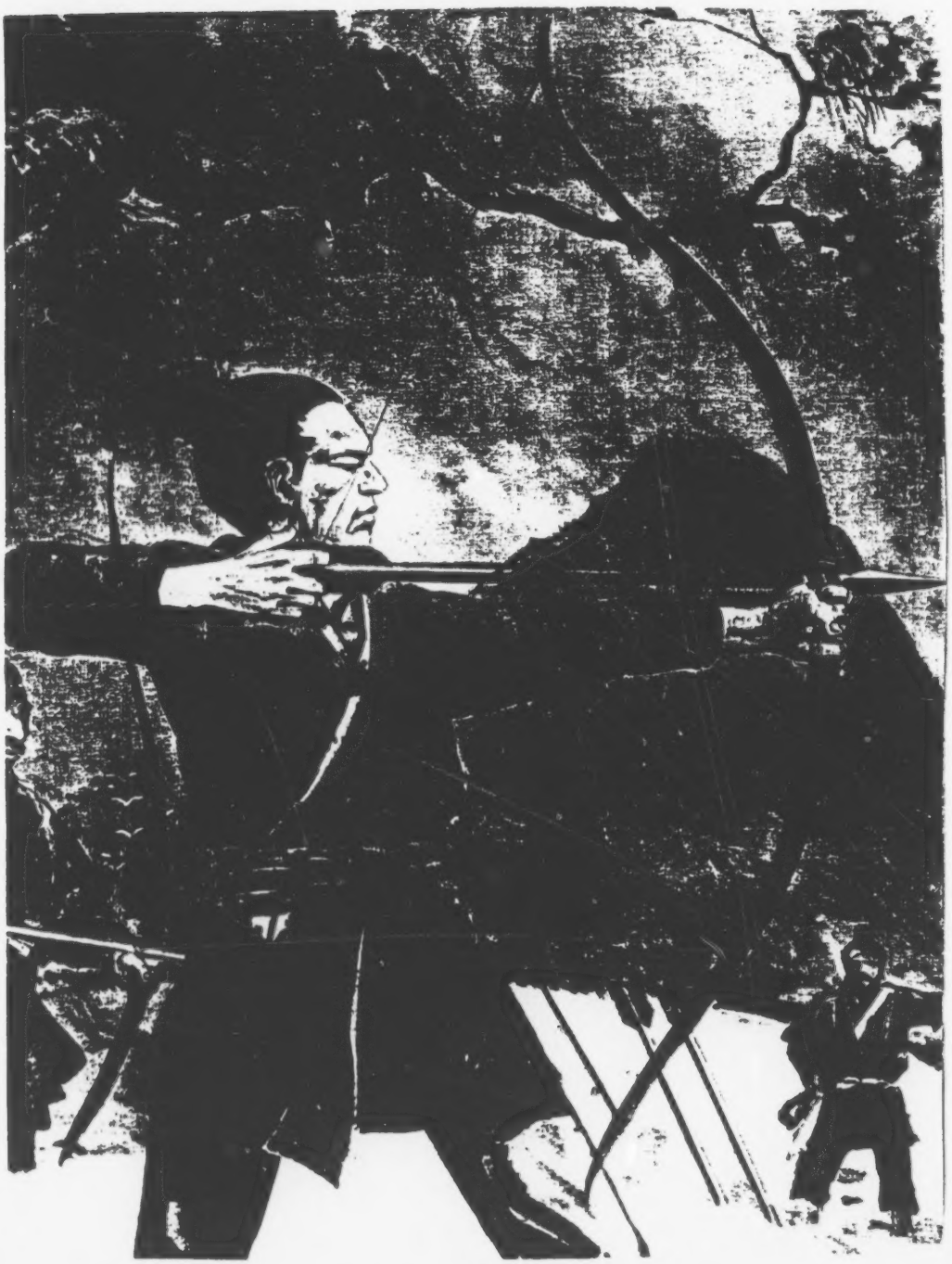
Subject: Social Studies/Ancient China *Grade:* 6 *Chapter:* _____

Topic: Early Religious Traditions *Session:* 1 *Lesson:* _____

Objective: Become familiar with Confucius; when and where he lived and discuss three ideas he taught.

Steps	*Sheltered Activities*	*Structure/Strategy*	*Materials*
Motivation	Pass out pictures of Confucius and mention where he was born. Brainstorm any "rules of behavior" that Confucius may have taught in his lifetime. Have class or volunteer students read aloud handout--"Great Thinkers of Old China."	Brainstorm Clustering	Pictures of Confucius
Input	Have a group of 3 act out (in a short skit) a situation that demonstrates the importance of education, filial piety or having honest leaders. (*See attached sheet for sample dialogue.)	Cooperative Projects	Adequate Floor Space
Checking for Understanding	Groups discuss 1 of the 2 skits and decide if and why these beliefs are still important in today's society. Each group then relates their findings to the rest of the class.	Jigsaw Cooperative Groups	
Guided Practice	Extend discussion to include ways in which students could apply some of these ideas to the classroom situation or their situation at home.		Chalkboard Overhead or Chart Paper
Closure	Using journals, students write down ways they could personally apply Confucius' teaching: "Do not do to others what you would not want them to do to you."	Journal Writing	
Independent Practice/ Extension	Have students write their own "rules of behavior" that would help our society achieve goodness.		

Vocabulary: philosopher, filial piety, influence, respect, behavior, a teaching



Confucius as a young man practicing his favorite sport (Rowland-Entwistle, 1986, p. 8).

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In his old age, Confucius spent most of his time studying and writing (Rowland-Entwistle, 1986, p. 16).

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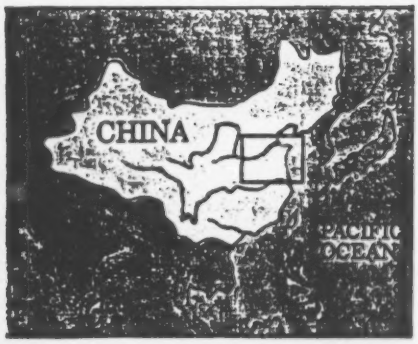
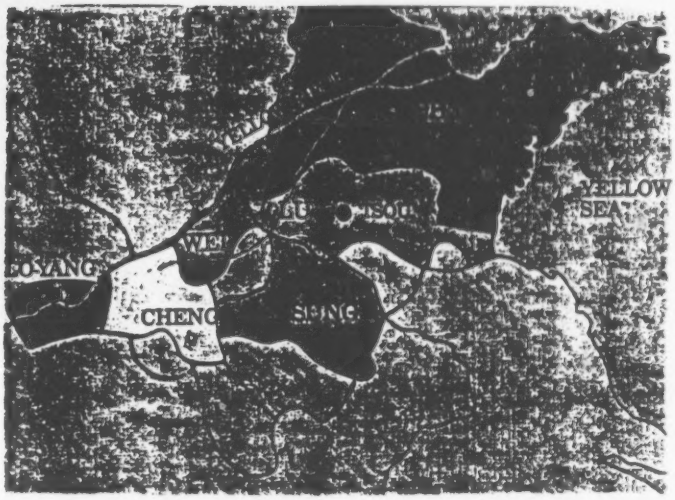
Above: Confucius was the most famous philosopher of ancient China. He lived until he was 73 years old (Rowland-Entwistle, 1986, p. 9).



Below: This map shows where Confucius was born, in the town of Tsou (Rowland-Entwistle, 1986, p. 10).



SAMPLE DIALOGUE FOR SKIT

Setting: A high school cafeteria
Situation: Three 10th graders talking about their futures while eating lunch

---

Student 1: Spencer, have you thought about where you want to go to college yet?

Student 2: College? Are you kidding? Two more years in this place will be more than enough school for me!

Student 3: You're not serious are you? You don't really want to quit school do you?

Student 1: Yeah, what would you do? It would be hard to get a job without any experience and only a high school diploma.

Student 2: I don't know what I'd do. Maybe I'd start my own business. Who knows? I just know I'm burned out on school.

Student 3: I know how you feel, Spencer. I get burned out too, but I know that a good education will be the best preparation for my future. Plus, I know I've got a good brain and I want to give this world my best shot.

Student 1: Yeah, Spence. I've seen you in biology class. You get that stuff down with ease. You should just find something like that, something you're interested in and go for it. You've got a good head on your shoulders.

Student 2: Well, I don't know. I'll have to give it some thought. You guys may be right.

SAMPLE DIALOGUE FOR SKIT

Setting: City official's office
Situation: Official and two aides are discussing the drug problem in their city

---

Official: I recently received word from two drug lords that they're going to make sure I don't get reelected unless I turn my eyes off of their trafficking.

1st Aide: Are you serious? They don't really think they can scare and threaten us like that, do they?

2nd Aide: I guess they do or they wouldn't be trying something like this. And, in my opinion, we'd better listen. I don't want to pick a fight with those guys. We could get killed!

Official: Hey, listen, let's not freak out. Maybe we could just make a bargain with them. We will simply overlook some of their business in their favorite selling places. We'll just cheat a little.

1st Aide: That doesn't sound right to me. We shouldn't give in to their pressure. I say we don't back down.

2nd Aide: That's easy for you to say, you don't have a family. I know we don't stand a chance against these guys. They will waste us for sure.

Official: Okay. Okay. I know this might not be the right thing to do, but we really don't have any other choice. I'll call them now and try to make a deal with them.

GREAT THINKERS OF OLD CHINA

In addition to observing ancient customs, the Chinese followed the teachings of certain philosophers. The most famous of these was Kung Fu Tzu, who is known to English-speaking people as Confucius. He lived around 500 B.C. One of his best-known teachings is, "Do not do to others what you would not want them to do to you."

Confucius believed that people were happiest when they followed rules of good behavior. Rulers should be wise and honest in order to set a good example for their subjects. Citizens should obey their rulers, just as children should obey their parents. It was important for people to study carefully the writings of ancient thinkers to learn about the right way to live.

The ideas of Confucius and his followers had a great influence on the Chinese way of life. For over 2000 years, most people in China followed the rules of behavior taught by these thinkers (Jennings, 1979, p. 49).

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Philosopher	someone who thinks about the meaning of life much more deeply than ordinary people
Filial piety	a strong devotion and respect that children should have for their parents
Influence	a way of making something happen without using force
Respect	to treat someone as though he is valuable and important
Behavior	to act in a certain way
A Teaching	an idea or belief taught by a philosopher, religious person or teacher

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Rowland-Entwistle, T. (1986). Confucius and ancient China. New York: Bookwright.

APPENDIX F

LESSON II--CHINESE WRITING

Sheltered /Cooperative Lesson Plan

History Date: Approx. 3500 B.C.-present

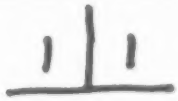
Subject: Social Studies/Ancient China *Grade:* 6 *Chapter:* _____

Topic: Chinese Writing *Session:* 2 *Lesson:* _____

Objective: Learn about the development of the Chinese system of writing.

Steps	*Sheltered Activities*	*Structure/Strategy*	*Materials*
Motivation	Pass out handout--"Ancient/Modern Characters" to cooperative groups. Play a game to see which team can match them the fastest and with the most accuracy. The team that gets the most right answers wins a prize.	Cooperative Groups	Handout--"Ancient/Modern Characters" Prize
Input	Pass out handout--"Boy Painting Characters." Have students read the story of Chinese writing aloud. Allow students to discuss how the 7 ancient and modern characters have changed over time. Are they very similar or are they different?	Oral Reading Class Discussion Brainstorming	Handout--"Boy Painting Characters"
Checking for Understanding	Using the previous handouts as models, allow students to develop 1 or 2 pictographs (describing concrete objects) and a couple of ideographs (expressing ideas) to share with the class. Emphasize simplicity, remembering that they are living 4000 years ago.	Cooperative Groups	Paper Markers
Guided Practice	Distribute handouts--"A Sample of How Chinese Characters Have Changed" and "Ancient/Modern Blank Sheet", have students practice writing the initial 10 characters they studied (both ancient and modern forms).	Cooperative Groups Peer Tutoring	Pencils Handouts--"A Sample of How Chinese Characters Have Changed" and "Ancient/Modern Blank Sheet"
Closure	Have students in cooperative groups select a few ancient characters and make a cave writing sample to be posted in classroom. Have student groups read each others' messages.		Grey or Brown Chart Paper
Independent Practice/ Extension	Invite a calligrapher (friend, parent, etc.) to show students how traditional Chinese writing is done.		

Vocabulary: pictographs, symbols, ideographs, calligraphy, traditional, characters

ANCIENT	MODERN
1. woman	A. 土
2. water	B. 雨
3. rain	C. 山
4. earth	D. 日
5.  fire	E. 女
6. mountains	F. 羊
7. sun	G. 水
8. moon	H. 牛
9. cow	I. 月
10. sheep	J. 火

ANCIENT	MODERN
1.	A.
2.	B.
3.	C.
4.	D.
5.	E.
6.	F.
7.	G.
8.	H.
9.	I.
10.	J.

A SAMPLE OF HOW CHINESE CHARACTERS HAVE CHANGED OVER THE YEARS

WOMAN
(NYU)

女

The above word is the modern version of

Stroke Order:

WATER
(SHWEI)

水

The ancient word for water is , a drawing of a stream with banks on either side.

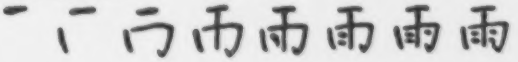
Stroke Order:

RAIN
(YU)

雨

The ancient word for rain is a cloud with drops of water falling.

Stroke Order:



EARTH
(TU)

土

This character is a simple version of the ancient word , a drawing of an altar of the soil. China has always been an agricultural society and in ancient times, altars were built to ensure good crops and fertility of the land.

Stroke Order:

FIRE
(HWO)

火

The ancient drawing was which shows the jumping quality of fire.

Stroke Order:

MOUNTAIN
(SHAN)

山

The modern version of the ancient drawing of mountains.

Stroke order: 丨 山 山

SUN
(R)

日

The old drawing was ⊖, a good example of how Chinese was round in the ancient writing and became square.

Stroke Order: 丨 冂 日 日

MOON
(YWE)

月

The original drawing was a crescent moon,

Stroke Order: 丿 冂 月 月

COW
(NYU)

牛

A picture of the cow's face and horns

Stroke Order: 丿 ㇒ 𠂇 牛

SHEEP
(YANG)

羊

A picture of a sheep's face and his big horns, an adaptation of the ancient word

Stroke Order: 丶 丷 ㇒ 𦍌 羊

THE STORY OF CHINESE WRITING

The Chinese system of writing has been around for many thousands of years. Even as early as 3500 B.C., the Chinese had already started to make pictographs--these were simple pictures or symbols for different objects such as a man, a woman, the sun or an animal. Some time later, drawings were combined to express ideas. For example, the pictures for "sun" and "moon" written together mean "light" or "bright", and the pictures for "woman" and "child" written together mean "good." These symbols are called ideographs. By the start of the Shang dynasty (1500-1600 B.C.), the written language had several thousand ideographs. As you can see in this picture, some have changed very little over the years. The photograph shows a child practicing calligraphy in the traditional way (Adapted from McLenighan, 1983, p. 17).

Pictographs	simple pictures that described objects
Symbols	pictures or drawings that stand for an idea
Ideographs	something that stands for something else
Calligraphy	symbols (like letters in the alphabet) used in writing or painting
Traditional	the Chinese art of drawing characters
Characters	a belief or custom that has been passed down to the next generation for many, many years

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APPENDIX G

LESSON III--THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

Sheltered /Cooperative Lesson Plan

History Date: 221 B.C.-210 B.C.

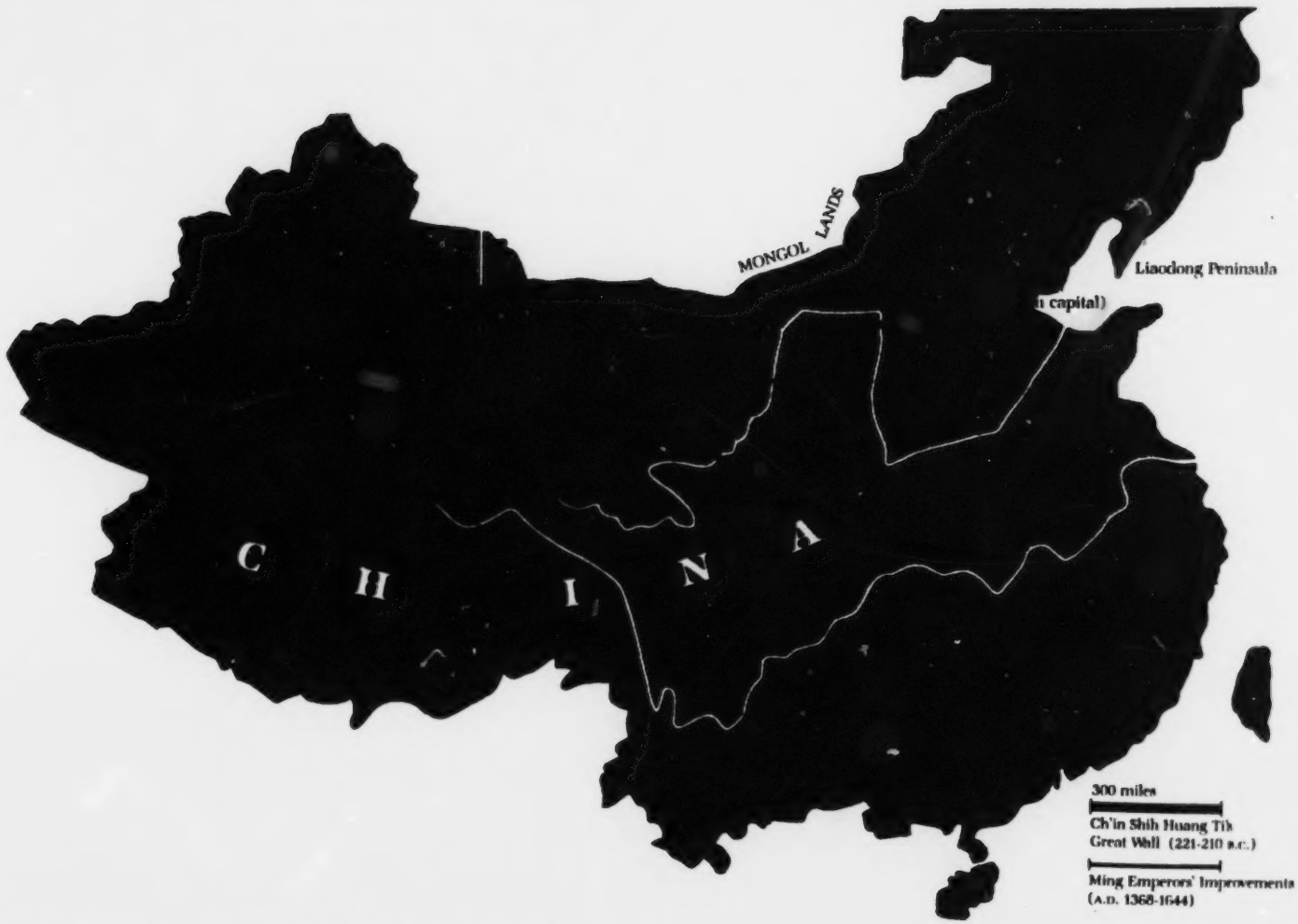
Subject: Social Studies/Ancient China *Grade:* 6 *Chapter:* _____

Topic: The Great Wall of China *Session:* 3 *Lesson:* _____

Objective: To understand why the Great Wall of China was built.

Steps	*Sheltered Activities*	*Structure/Strategy*	*Materials*
Motivation	Using the handout--"Map of Great Wall," in cooperative groups, have students approximate the length of the Great Wall from Liaodong to Lintao--Emperor Chin Shih Huang Ti's-(Chin Sure Wang Tea's) great accomplishment. The Great Wall is approximately 1500 miles long.	Group Discussion	Handout--"Map of Great Wall"
Input	Select students to act out the short skit about the building of the Great Wall. Allow students adequate time to memorize their lines. Narrators should read their part.	Group Presentation	Copies of Skit Volunteers Floor Space Chair
Checking for Understanding	In coopertive groups, have students discuss/debate Emperor Huang Ti's decision to build the wall. Was it a good idea or not? Why? Many people died building the wall. Was it worth losing so many lives? Have groups present their consensus opinions to the class. Tally results on the board.	Group Discussion	
Guided Practice	Have individual students write a short letter to Emperor Huang Ti expressing their approval or disapproval of the Great Wall project. They should state why they agree or disagree as well.	Individual Writing Practice	
Closure	Write 5-7 questions on the board pertaining to the lesson (i.e., When was the wall built?) In cooperative groups, students answer the questions. Prize awarded.	Cooperative Groups	Prize
Independent Practice/ Extension	Have students track down any pictures of the Great Wall they can find and share them with the class.	Individual Presentation	

Vocabulary: narrator, emperor, advisors, minister, fierce, mongols, barbarians



Handout--"Map of Great Wall" (Fisher, 1986, p. 5).

THE BUILDING OF THE GREAT WALL

CHARACTERS:

Narrator
2 Guards
Messenger
Emperor
4 Royal Advisors:
1. Prime Minister
2. Minister of Defense
3. Grand General
4. Emperor's Oldest Son

Narrator: In the land of China some 2200 years ago there lived a king named Chin Shih Huang Ti (Chin Sure Wang Tea). This king was facing a very big problem in his kingdom. Fierce horsemen from the North were raiding his villages regularly, attacking people and stealing their goods. The king knew the Mongols (as they were called) must be stopped or they would take over his kingdom.

(Have 2 guards throw someone at the king's feet)

One day the king's guards threw a man at the king's feet. He was wearing worn-out clothing and was covered with mud. He had run a long way with a message for the king.

MESSENGER: (trembling)

"O mighty king," he cried, "the Mongols have many villages in Wei. My own village has been turned to ashes. I alone have escaped."

EMPEROR:

"I must stop these barbarians."

PRIME MINISTER:

"They are cruel! How can we stop them?"

MINISTER OF DEFENSE:

"They are tricky. It will not be easy to stop them."

GRAND GENERAL:

"And they are strong. What weapons do we have to defeat them?"

EMPEROR'S OLDEST SON:

"Soon they will fall on us and destroy us all. What will happen to us? How can we save ourselves?"

EMPEROR: (yelling)

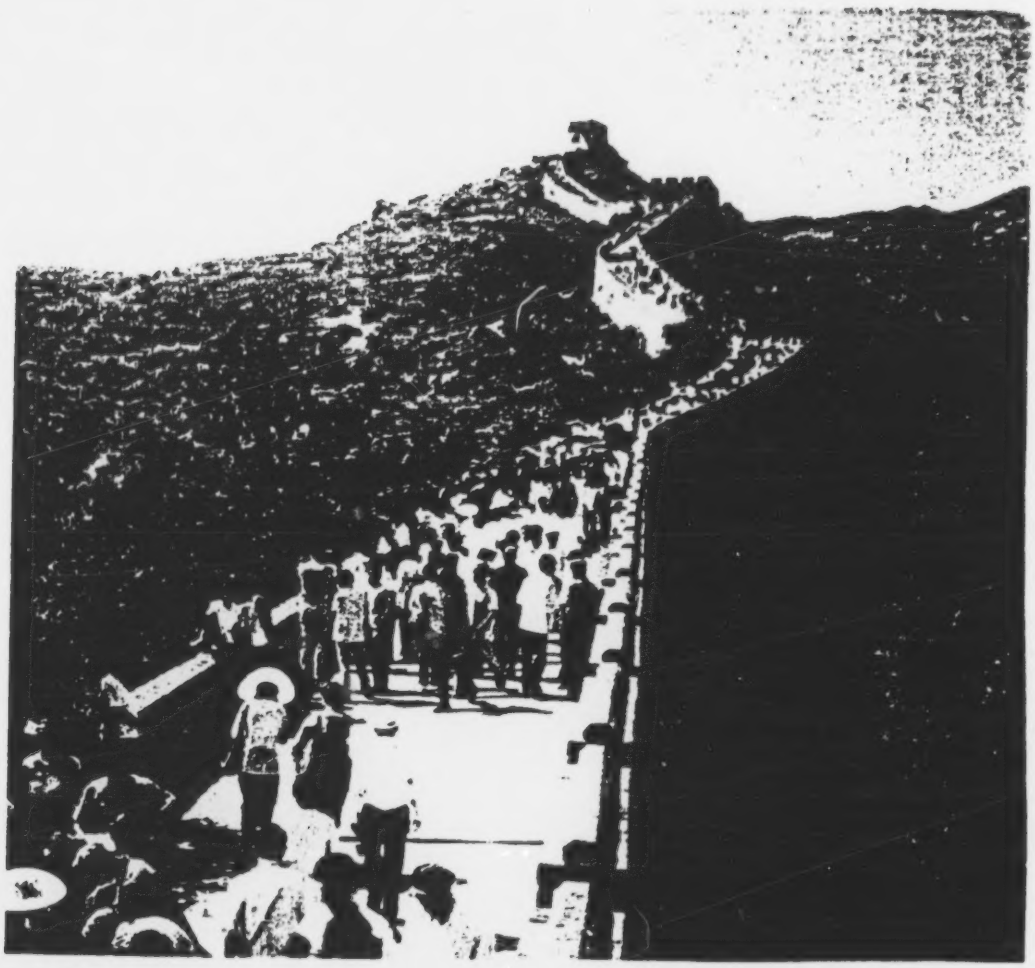
"WITH A WALL!"

ROYAL ADVISORS: (Prime Minister, Minister of Defense, Grand General) (looking at each other) "A wall? What wall? We have many walls. None of them can stop these barbarians."

EMPEROR: "I shall fix the old walls. I shall build a new and mightier wall and shall join all the walls together. It will stretch from Liao-dong in the East to Lintao in the West. It will be six horses wide at the top and eight at the bottom and five men high. No Mongol barbarian will be able to go around it, over it, under it or through it. It will be the GREAT WALL."

NARRATOR: After the emperor said these words, he ordered his men to start work. The general's men started to grab people from everywhere to work on the wall. Musicians, teachers, writers, and artists all had to join the army of workers. Before long there were almost one million people working on the emperor's Great Wall. Some workers fixed the old walls. Others made new ones. Bricks and stones soon covered the ouside of the wall from one end to the other. Watch towers were placed every 100 yards for extra protection. The Mongols only watched, but did not attack so many workers. The Chinese worked day and night, day after day, and no one could rest. Many died building the Great Wall. The wall grew slowly, but finally after 10 years of hard work, the wall was finished. The emperor came to see the finished wall. He was overjoyed.

EMPEROR: (raising his arms) "I have stopped the Mongols. We are saved at last" (Adapted from Fisher, 1986, p. 7-30)!



The Great Wall is wide enough so that five horses abreat were able to thunder along it (McLenighan, 1983, p. 8).

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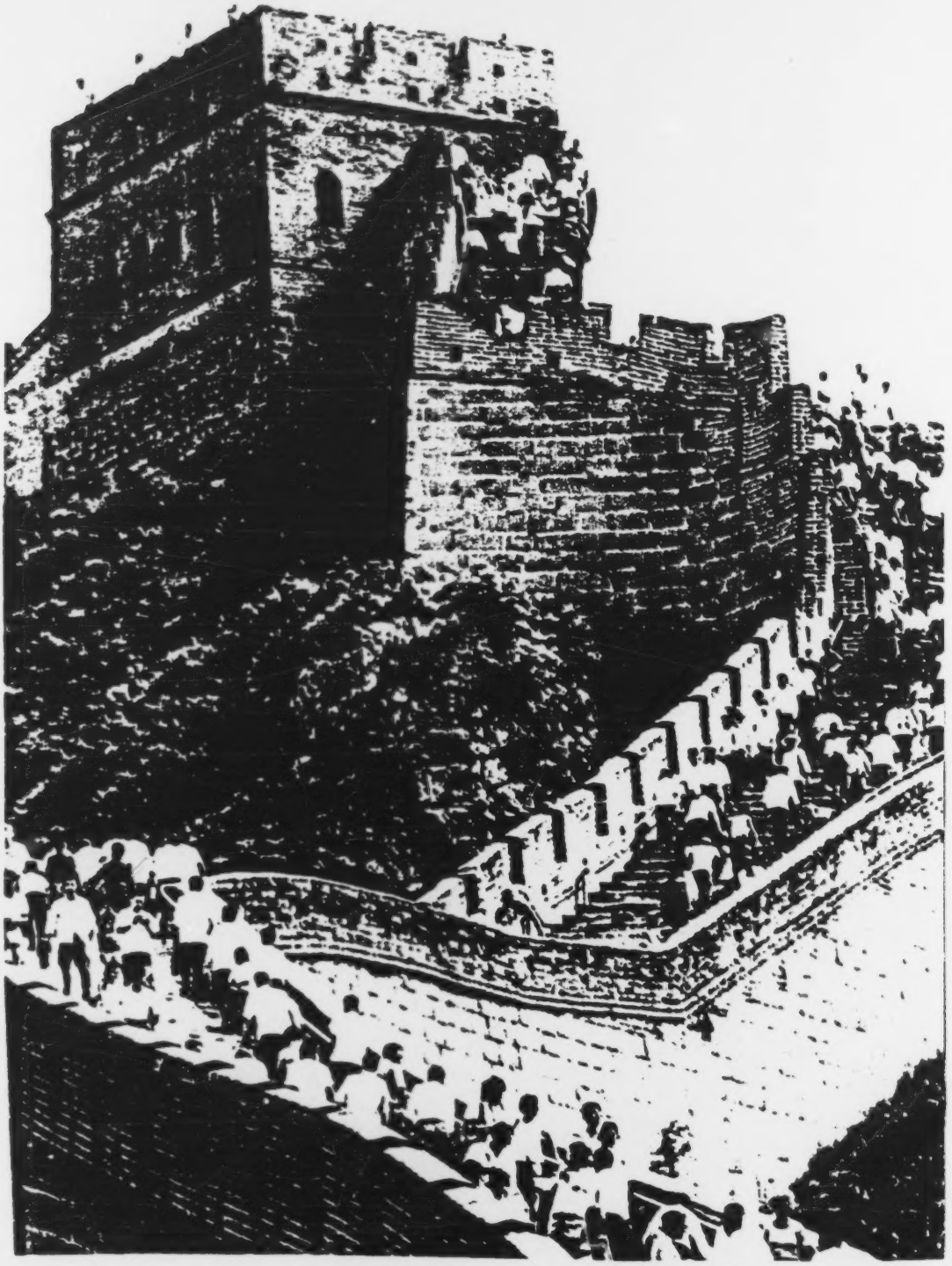
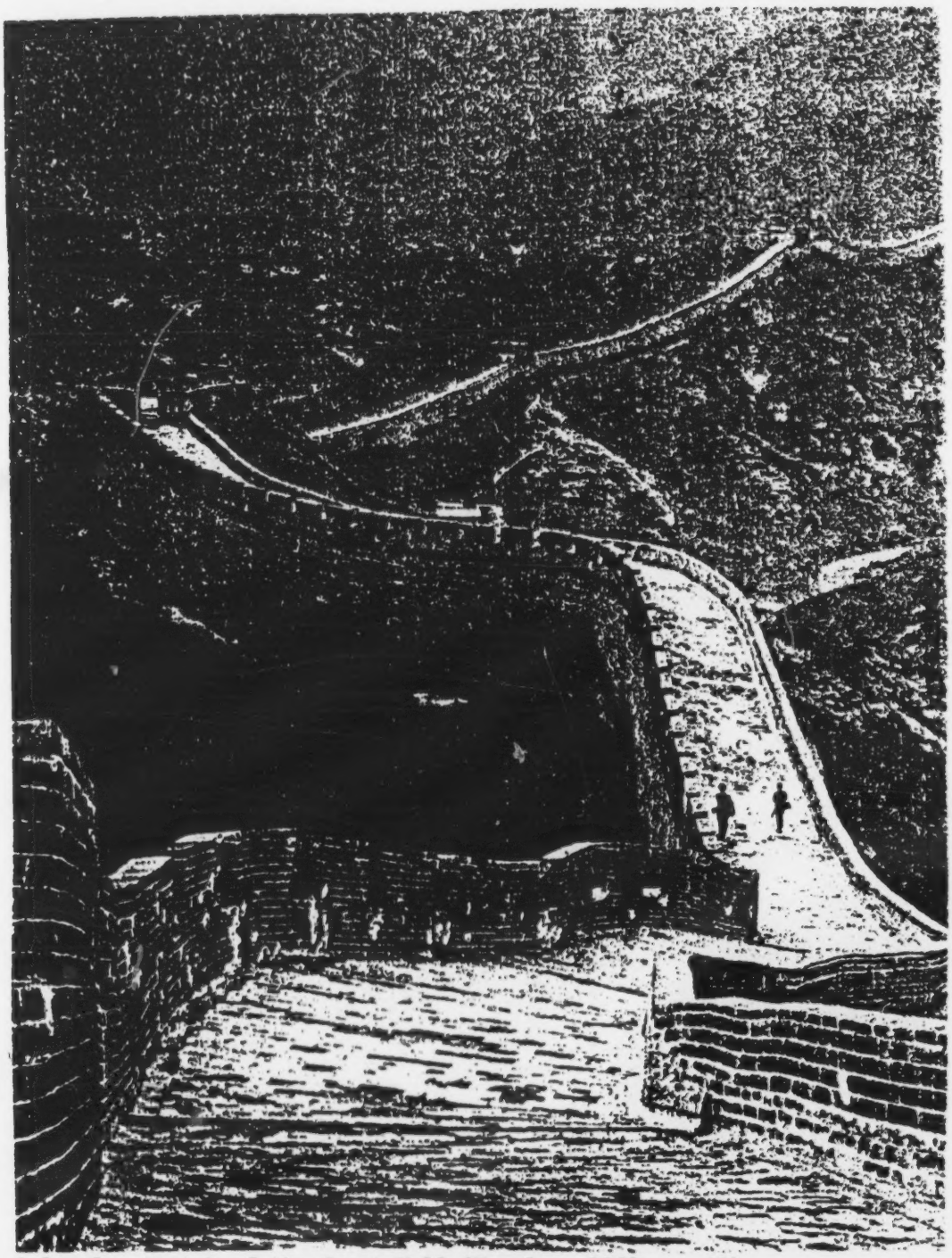


A rising tower along the Great Wall of China (Clayre, 1985, p. 33).



A lonely stretch of the Great Wall (Fessler, 1963, p. 42).

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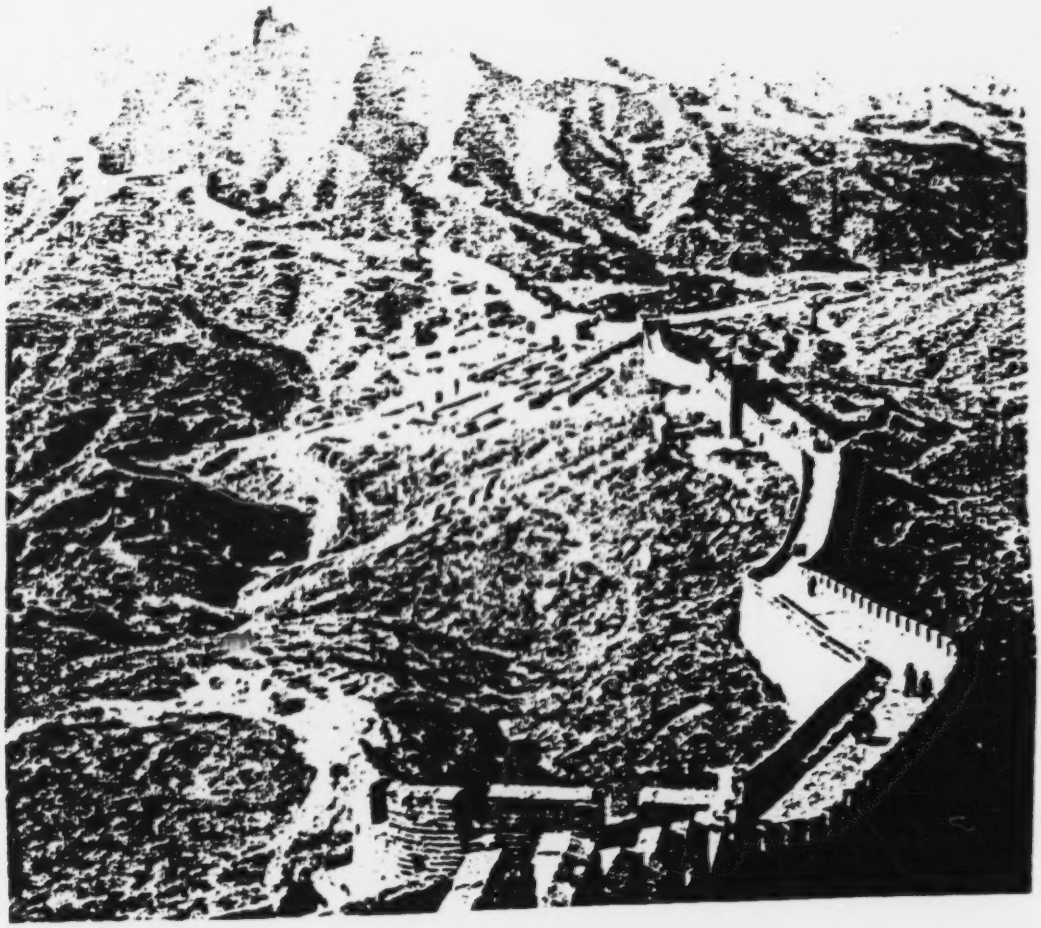
The Great Wall of China was built in the third century B.C (McLenighan, 1983, p. 6).



A section of the Great Wall winds its way into the distance. Thousands of slaves and unpaid workers died during its construction (Hughes-Stanton, 1986, p. 21).

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Narrator	someone who tells the details of a story
Emperor	the king or ruler of a land
Advisors	people who help the ruler choose one idea or another
Minister	a person in a very important position in the government
Fierce	very wild and dangerous
Mongols	the very strong and fierce people who lived north of the Chinese people

Barbarians	a person or people who others think are not as smart or well-behaved as they are

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APPENDIX H

LESSON IV--CHINESE INVENTIONS

Sheltered /Cooperative Lesson Plan

History Date: Different Periods

Subject: Social Studies/Ancient China *Grade:* 6 *Chapter:* _____

Topic: Chinese Inventions *Session:* 4 *Lesson:* _____

Objective: Identify some of the technological contributions of the ancient Chinese.

Steps	*Sheltered Activities*	*Structure/Strategy*	*Materials*
Motivation	Pass out handout--"List of Inventions." In cooperative groups have students decide which inventions they think were developed by the Chinese. Have each group state their conclusions out loud. Tally results on the board. The group with the most correct answers gets the prize.	Cooperative Groups	Handout--"List of Inventions" Prize
Input	Distribute handout--"Briefs on Inventions" to 11 students volunteering to read introduction and the 10 following briefs on inventions orally. To introduce each brief, students should pose their riddles and have the other class members guess what invention they are talking about.	Individual Readers' Presentations	Handout--"Briefs on Inventions"
Checking for Understanding	After the briefs have been read, have the students discuss/debate which of the inventions are most important or valuable for us today and why.	Class Discussion Open Debate	
Guided Practice	In cooperative groups have students make samples of some of the inventions they've just studied. Directions for making each invention should be given to the respective groups. (Directions for making four less complicated inventions are enclosed.) Students should then share how they made their "invention" with the class.	Cooperative Groups	Handout--"Making Your Own Chinese Invention"
Closure	Have students choose one of the inventions they have studied and write in journals what they think life might be like without it.	Synthesis Journal	Journals
Independent Practice/ Extension	Have students explore their own national history at home to find an invention that someone from their country made. They may ask parents, relatives or friends for information.	Interview	

Vocabulary: invention, porcelain, abacus, festival, gunpowder, silk

LIST OF INVENTIONS

Circle the following inventions that you think the Chinese invented.

1. Seismograph
2. Gunpowder
3. Electricity
4. Paper
5. Printing
6. Razor blades
7. Abacus
8. Silk
9. Lipstick
10. Wheelbarrow
11. Harness for animals
12. Crossbow
13. The game of baseball
14. Kites
15. Porcelain
16. Compass
17. Paper money
18. Ink
19. Ships that could float
20. Iron tools
21. The automobile

Note to teachers: Numbers 3, 6, 9, 13, and 21 are not Chinese inventions.

BRIEFS ON INVENTIONS

Needed: Eleven students to read about each invention

Introduction: The people living in China thousands of years ago thought of and used many things that made their work easier. They also invented things that helped to make their lives more enjoyable. For example, they made the first wheelbarrows and block printing, and they also discovered how to make porcelain. They were the first ones to use puppets in shadow plays. The Chinese also knew how to make a compass, ink, an abacus, and kites. The following are just a few of the many things the Chinese have invented.

RIDDLE #1: I come in many shapes and sizes and I'm usually seen high up in the sky on nice, windy days. What am I?

The Chinese knew how to make kites and fly them in the wind. They used paper and bamboo sticks to make their kites. They made them into many different shapes like birds, butterflies, fish, stars, and dragons. They painted the colorful kites and flew them at festival times. Some of the kites were so huge that it took many men to fly just one of them.

RIDDLE #2: I am usually used to hold food, water or flowers. I am often very beautiful to look at. What am I?

The Chinese knew how to make porcelain pots. They mixed and ground white clay with sand and powdered rock. They washed the mixture several times and made a thick, smooth paste. They made this paste into vases, bowls, dishes, and jars and then painted them. The Chinese potters then baked these pieces in a very hot oven for a few days to harden them. Then they allowed the porcelain pieces to cool slowly. This porcelain, called "China", became known all over the world because of its thinness and its beautiful designs and colors.

RIDDLE #3: I am used in guns, some bombs, and in many kinds of firecrackers. What am I?

The Chinese knew how to make gunpowder. They made tiny firecrackers and giant ones. They made rockets that burst into shapes of fish, dragons, trees, stars, and birds; all of many bright colors. They set off these firecrackers at their festivals.

RIDDLE #4: In some countries people use me to count and do arithmetic. What am I?

The Chinese were the first to invent a counting frame which we call an abacus. They called it a suan pan. The Chinese made their suan pan by stringing hollow beads on thin bamboo sticks or on metal rods in a frame. They moved the beads to figure out the answers to arithmetic problems.

RIDDLE #5: Without me you would not be able to print books, newspapers or comic books. What am I?

The Chinese knew how to make paper like the kind we use today. They were the first ones to do so. They shredded rags, rope, bark of trees, and old fishing nets, and soaked them in water. They added glue or starch and pressed the mixture into very thin sheets. When the sheets dried, the Chinese had paper. They used this paper in their writing and drawing. The Chinese also made wrapping paper, paper napkins, and wallpaper.

RIDDLE #6: I am used in pens to help people write. I come in many different colors. What am I?

The Chinese knew how to make ink. They held iron pot-covers over the flames of lighted candles to collect the black soot (from the smoke) called lampblack. In the same way, they also collected the soot of burning pine wood. They scraped off the lampblack, and mixed it with gum (a tree sap) until the mixture became paste. They put water in the paste and stirred it well. This made ink which the Chinese use for writing, drawing, and black printing.

RIDDLE #7: Today machines make newspapers, magazines, and books. I am what is used with ink so you can see what is printed on the paper. What am I?

The Chinese invented block printing. This type of printing was first used more than a thousand years ago. The Chinese wrote words on a large block of wood. Then they cut away some of the wood leaving the words raised on the block. They brushed ink on the words and pressed a sheet of paper over them. This is how the Chinese made a page of print. They were the first ones to print books. They also printed the first paper money known in the world.

RIDDLE #8: You may want to carry me if you go hiking or camping. I help people to tell directions and keep them from getting lost. What am I?

The Chinese knew how to make a compass. Old Chinese books tell us that the Chinese had magnet stones which we call "lodestones." They placed a pointed lodestone on a piece of wood floating in water. When the floating wood stopped moving, the stone always pointed north and south. This was a compass. The Chinese used the south-pointing end of the stone as their guide to find direction.

RIDDLE #9: I float on water and come in many shapes and sizes and usually have many people on me. What am I?

The Chinese knew how to build ships that could stay afloat even if water leaked through. They were the first people to build several rows of wooden walls inside the ship from side to side. If any water leaked into any section of the ship, the walls would keep the water from flowing into the rest of the ship. The ship would remain afloat (Levine, 1956, p. 1-32)!

RIDDLE #10: I am an expensive type of cloth that shines in the sun. I am smooth and soft and feel very comfortable. What am I?

According to Chinese legends, silk was discovered by Empress Hsi Ling Shi (She Ling Sure) around 2700 B.C. She was trying to find out what was wrong with the mulberry trees in her garden. She found them covered with white worms which had made bright cocoons. The empress accidentally dropped a cocoon into hot water and when she looked, she saw a single thin thread.

Soon she invented a silk reel to spin these fibers together into a stronger one. The Chinese kept the secret of silk making for three thousand years. Not until 550 A.D., did the secret of silk making reach the West (McLenighan, 1983, p. 17).

MAKING YOUR OWN CHINESE INVENTIONS

1. Pottery

   You can make a piece of pottery. Buy some modeling clay in a store that sells toys. Shape the clay into a bowl or a dish and bake it in a kiln to harden it or just let your pottery dry and harden in the air. Then you can paint and shellac your bowl or dish.

2. Ink

   You can make your own ink. Hold a plate over a candle flame for a short time and then put out the flame. The black spot that you see on the plate is lampblack. Add two or three drops of cooking oil or machine oil to this lampblack. Mix it well. You have made lampblack ink. Take a small paintbrush and paint a Chinese character. Does it dry quickly or smudge?

3. Compass

   You can make your own compass. Magnetize a steel needle by rubbing it many times on one end of a magnet, one way only. Fasten the needle through a small piece of paper. Attach a thread to the edge of the paper so that the needle hangs straight across. Tie the other end of the thread to a small flat stick. Hang the needle inside a glass jar with the stick resting across the top of the jar. Make sure that the paper does not touch the jar. When the needle stops moving, one end will point toward the north. Color this end. It will always point north. Now find the other directions.

4. A Floating Ship

   You can show that watertight sections will help ships float in water. Tie together two empty milk cartons, side by side. You have made a two-section "ship." Close both covers of the cartons and place your ship in a tub of water. Watch your ship float! The air in the watertight "sections" helps to keep it from sinking. Now open one cover and let that carton fill with water. Watch how your ship still floats! The air in the watertight section helps to keep the ship from sinking. Open the other carton and let it fill with water, too. Watch your ship sink (Adapted from Levine, 1956, pp. 20-35)!

Invention	something a person or people make that has never been made before
Porcelain	a kind of pottery beautifully made from clay, using paint and high heat
Abacus	a wooden frame with small beads that can be slid on wires used for counting in China and some other countries
Gunpowder	a dangerous substance that can be used to make explosions and fireworks
Festival	a very important time of celebration that often includes special activities
Silk	a very strong, shiny, and smooth fiber made from silkworm

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APPENDIX I

LESSON V--CLASSICAL CHINESE LITERATURE

Sheltered /Cooperative Lesson Plan

History Date: Approx. 100 B.C.–130 B.C.

Subject: Social Studies/Ancient China *Grade:* 6 *Chapter:* _____

Topic: Classical Chinese Literature *Session:* 5 *Lesson:* _____

Objective: Survey a few of the more well-known pieces of ancient Chinese literature.

Steps	*Sheltered Activities*	*Structure/Strategy*	*Materials*
Motivation	Have individual students present to the class orally, each of the poems and the story included in this lesson. The story should be read aloud. However, the poems may be recited from memory if students have time and are willing to memorize verses.	Oral Presentation of Literature Pieces	Copies of the Story and the Poems
Input	Have various students read aloud a paragraph or portion from the handout--"A Brief Word About Chinese Literature." As students read, instructors should write a time line on the board depicting the names of the various books (Book of Poetry, Analects of Confucius, and the Tao Te Ching), the dates they were written, and who wrote or compiled them. Discuss this information briefly.	Oral Reading Class Discussion	Handout--"A Brief Word About Chinese Literature"
Checking for Understanding	Assign each cooperative group a particular literature piece to analyze and study more in depth. Have them discuss what they believe the piece is saying, why it may have been written, and any lessons we can learn from the piece today. After 10-15 minutes, have a team spokesperson relate their information to the rest of the class.	Jigsaw Cooperative Groups Discussion Brainstorming	
Guided Practice	As a writing exercise, have students choose one of the following: 1) write a poem on a topic they like related to China, 2) relating to the story of Confucius and friends, write down their own ambition in life and why they would like to pursue that goal, 3) write a response to the Tao Te Ching Poem; do they agree with the author's views or not? or 4) write a letter to console the princess who has been sent to a foreign land.	Individual Writing Exercise	
Closure	Have students bring in their favorite poem, legend, short story, proverb, etc. from their home. Encourage children to bring pieces of literature from their respective countries.	Individual Oral Presentation	
Independent Practice/ Extension	Have any brave students share their poems, ambitions, responses or letters orally before the class.	Homework Assignment	

Vocabulary: Analects of Confucius, ambitions, carriages, suffering, famine, moral ideas, ceremonies, gown, felt, stork, court, gourd, emerald, courtesy, ruby, sardonyx, sorrow, swallow, fades, vainly, grief

A STORY TAKEN FROM THE ANALECTS OF CONFUCIUS

Tse Lu (Ci Lu), Tseng Hsi (Tseng She), Jan Chiu (John Choe), Kung Hsi (Kung She) and Confucius were sitting together one day and Confucius humbly and politely asked his friends what their ambitions in life were. Tse Lu quickly said, "I should like to rule over a country with a thousand carriages between two powerful neighbors involved in war and suffering from famine. I would like to lead a country like this and in three years the nation would become strong and neat." Confucius smiled at this and said, "How about you, Jan Chiu?" Jan Chiu answered, "Let me have a country 60 or 70 miles square or perhaps only 50 or 60 miles square. Let me be the leader and in three years the people will have enough to eat, but as for teaching them moral living and music, I will leave it to a better man." Confucius then turned to Kung Hsi and said, "How about you Kung Hsi?" Kung Hsi said, "I don't know if I can do it, but at the special religious ceremonies and the meetings of the princes, I would like to wear a special hat and gown and be a helper at the ceremonies." Confucius then said, "How about you Tseng Hsi?" Tseng Hsi was just playing his instrument and with a bang he left the instrument and stood up to speak. "You know my ambition is different from theirs." "It doesn't matter," said Confucius, "we are just trying to find out what each would like to do." Then he said, "In late spring, when new spring dresses are made, I would like to go with five or six grown-ups and six or seven children to bathe in the River Chi, and after the bath

go to enjoy the breeze in the Wu Yi woods, and then sing on our way home!" Confucius sighed deeply and said, "You are the man after my own heart" (Adapted from Gascoigne, 1973, p. 42).

A PRINCESS' PLIGHT

My people have married me
In a far corner of the earth;
Sent me away to a strange land,
To the King of the Wu Sun.
A tent is my house,
Of felt are my walls;
Raw meat my food
With horses milk to drink.
Always thinking of my own country,
My heart sad within.
Wish I were a yellow stork
And could fly to my old home!
(Adapted from Gascoigne, 1973,
p. 80)

A POEM FROM THE TAO TE CHING (THE WAY AND ITS POWER)

1. Nothing under heaven
Is softer and weaker than water,
Yet nothing can compare with it
In attacking the hard and strong.
Nothing can change place with it.

That the weak overcomes the strong,
And the soft overcomes the hard,
No one under heaven does not know,
Though none can put it into practice.

2. Therefore a wise man said:
"One who receives the filth of a state,
Is called the Master of the Altar of the Soil and Grain;
One who carries the evils of a state,
Becomes the King under heaven."
Simple words seem to mean their opposite.
(Adapted from Chen, 1989, p. 78)

THREE POEMS FROM THE BOOK OF POETRY

1. THE PLUMS

The plums are falling-
There are only seven.
For the gentlemen who court me,
Lucky is the time.

The plums are falling-
There are only three.
For the gentlemen who court me,
Now is the time.

The plums are falling-
In a basket I've gathered them all.
For the gentlemen who court me,
Speak while there is time.
(Adapted from Gascoigne, 1973,
p. 34)

2. THREE GIFTS

A royal gourd was given me,
And in exchange an emerald I gave,
No small return for courtesy,
But that our friendship might
Outlast the grave.

A princely peach was given me,
And in exchange a ruby gem I gave,
No small return for courtesy,
But that our friendship might
Outlast the grave.

A yellow plum was given me,
And in exchange a sardonyx I gave,
No small return for courtesy,
But that our friendship might
Outlast the grave.
(Adapted from Cranmer-Byng,
1905, p. 43)

3. SORROW

She desired her native land again.
The swallow takes its ragged flight.
We went together day and night,
Until parting took her from my sight
And the tears fell down like rain.

She went her native land to seek.
Now up, now down the swallow flies.
And oh!-the last of tender ties,
The form that fades from aching eyes,
And the tears running down my cheek.

Around, about the swallows dart
She went into a far country,
And when I vainly tried to see-
The empty land laughed at me,
And great sorrow settled on my heart.
(Adapted from Cranmer-Byng, 1905,
p. 46)

A BRIEF WORD ABOUT CHINESE LITERATURE

The poems and story that were just read come from some of the most famous pieces of ancient Chinese literature. The three poems, The Plums, The Three Gifts, and Sorrow were taken from an ancient book called the Shih Ching (Sure Ching) or the Book of Poetry. These were written somewhere between 500 and 1700 B.C. They were later put together into a collection of poems by Confucius. He did not write them, though. Even today, the Book of Poetry is considered one of the highest forms of literature in China and school children must study these poems at an early age.

Traditional Chinese values such as safety, long life, spiritual peace, and freedom are most commonly found in the writings of the Shih Ching. Nature and the life that is lived in the midst of one's natural surroundings are also common themes in this collection of poems. Originally, poems from this period consisted of lines with four characters each (this means each line had four words). Later, the four character line was dropped and five-character or seven-character line poems were created.

The story about Confucius and his friends is taken from another famous and very old book called the Analects of Confucius. Although Confucius did not write this book either, it contains many of his important sayings. A follower of Confucius, named Mencius, put these sayings together into a book some 100 years after Confucius lived--around 400 B.C.

The poem about water is yet another example of literature

from ancient China. This poem is taken from a book called the Tao Te Ching (The Way and Its Power) and was probably written about 100 years after Confucius (approximately 400 B.C). The Tao Te Ching was a religious book that mostly talked about nature and how man and nature should live together in peace. Many people believe Lao Tze (a well-known Chinese philosopher who started the Taoist religion) was the writer of this book.

The other poem we just read was written by a Chinese princess in 107 B.C. We do not know the name of the author, but this is thought to be a very famous poem of that time.

All of these works of literature are just a small sample of the beautiful writings of the ancient Chinese people (Adapted from Watson, 1984, p. 6-7).

Analects of Confucius	a book of the sayings of Confucius put together 100 years after his death
Ambitions	desires to succeed or to reach a goal
Carriages	vehicles with wheels used for carrying people or things
Suffering	to feel great pain or sadness
Famine	a time when there is very little food in a land or place
Moral Ideas	ideas that help people understand what is right and wrong

Ceremonies	very special religious, government or social celebrations
Gown	a special kind of clothing worn by government officials
Felt	a soft cloth made of wool and fur
Stork	a large, big-billed bird
Court	to try to win someone else's love and affection
Gourd	the shell of a hard fruit used for drinking

Emerald	a green-colored precious stone
Courtesy	polite or proper behavior, acting polite
Ruby	a red-colored precious stone
Sardonyx	a gem stone often used in making jewelry
Sorrow	deep sadness
Swallow	a small bird with long wings

Fades	when something loses its brightness, light or color
Vainly	doing something without success

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APPENDIX J

LESSON VI--THE SILK ROAD

Sheltered /Cooperative Lesson Plan

History Date: 140 B.C.-1297 A.D.

Subject: Social Studies/Ancient China *Grade:* 6 *Chapter:* _____

Topic: The Silk Road *Session:* 6 *Lesson:* _____

Objective: Understand the significance of the Silk Road in creating trade between the East and the West.

Steps	*Sheltered Activities*	*Structure/Strategy*	*Materials*
Motivation	Using the handout--"Map of Artifacts", in cooperative groups, have students try to guess which present-day countries the Silk Road actually passed through. The team with the most correct answers (countries named correctly) wins a prize.	Cooperative Groups Discussion	Copies of Handout-- "Map of Artifacts"
Input	Have a reader or readers read the 3 stories aloud in chronological order (Chang Chien, Hsuan Tsang, and Marco Polo). Students are encouraged to follow each traveler's route with the maps of each man's journeys.	Oral Reading	Copies of Handout-- "Three Stories" copies of Handout-- "Maps of Each Traveler's Journey"
Checking for Understanding	Using the stories, pictures, quotations, and their own imaginations, have the students discuss in cooperative groups some of the challenges and difficulties these early travelers may have faced on their long journeys. Have them make a list including things like, windstorms, mountains, snow, wild animals, deserts, thieves, etc. Spokesperson shares list with class.	Cooperative Groups Discussion	Copies of Pictures Copies of Handout-- "Three Stories"
Guided Practice	Have the students imagine that they are 1 of the early travelers passing along the Silk Road for 1 day. In their journals or for a writing exercise, have them describe what they might see, anyone they might meet, and any dangers they might encounter along their way.	Journal Entry Writing Exercise	Journal
Closure	As an art project, have students draw a scene depicting some aspect of the lesson: a caravan, exchanging goods in the king's court, a wind storm, or mountain scene, etc.	Individual Art Project	Art Paper
Independent Practice/ Extension	Have students bring in small items native to their own countries that they would like to trade for items other students bring in.	Classroom Trade Fair	Trading Items

Vocabulary: pioneer, diplomat, envoys, nobleman, fertile, allies, Buddhist, pilgrim, translation, oasis, interpreters, merchant

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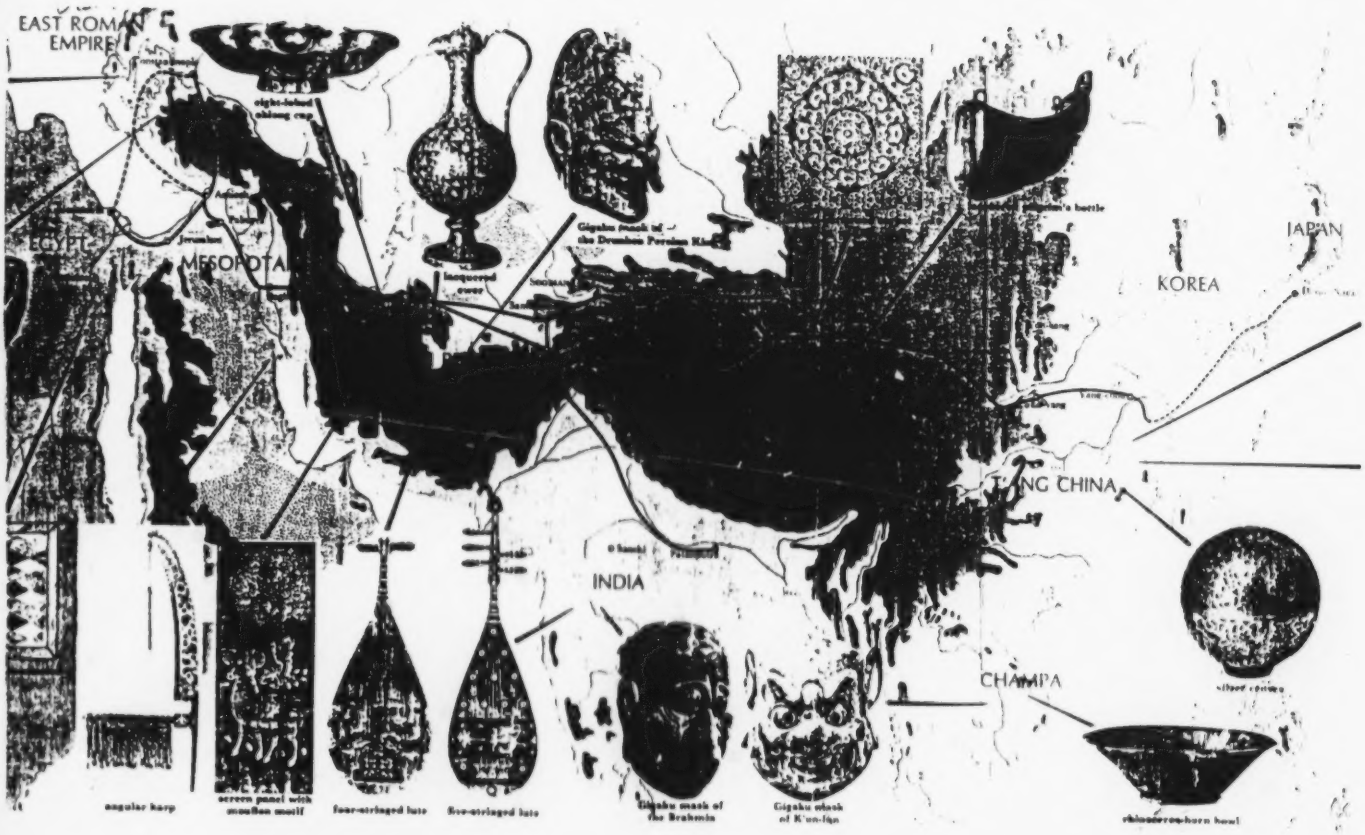


Handout--"Map of Artifacts" (Hayashi, 1975, p. 128½).

NATIONS THAT THE SILK ROAD WENT THROUGH

1. China
2. Soviet Union
3. Turkey
4. Syria
5. Iraq
6. Iran
7. Afghanistan
8. Pakistan
9. India
10. Lebanon
11. Israel
12. Egypt

CHANG CHIEN: A PIONEER TRAVELER ON THE SILK ROAD

Chang Chien (Jhang Chyen), one of the first travelers to go outside of China's borders, was a diplomat. His travels in central Asia opened the roads for the beginning of the Silk Road trade routes.

In the second century B.C. the Hsiung Nu (Shoong New), nomads from the north, attacked China often. The Chinese emperor, Han Wu Ti, was upset by these attacks and made a plan. He decided to send envoys out to the West to find other tribes who would join the Chinese in fighting against the Hsiung Nu.

Chang Chien, a nobleman, volunteered for this dangerous trip. In 138 B.C. he left China with 100 men. He went west looking for people who would join the Chinese emperor in fighting the Hsiung Nu. He crossed huge deserts and high mountain passes where robbers were waiting to attack and kill. The Hsiung Nu caught Chang Chien and put him in jail. While he was held captive, he was given a wife, and had a son. After 10 years, he escaped with his wife and son.

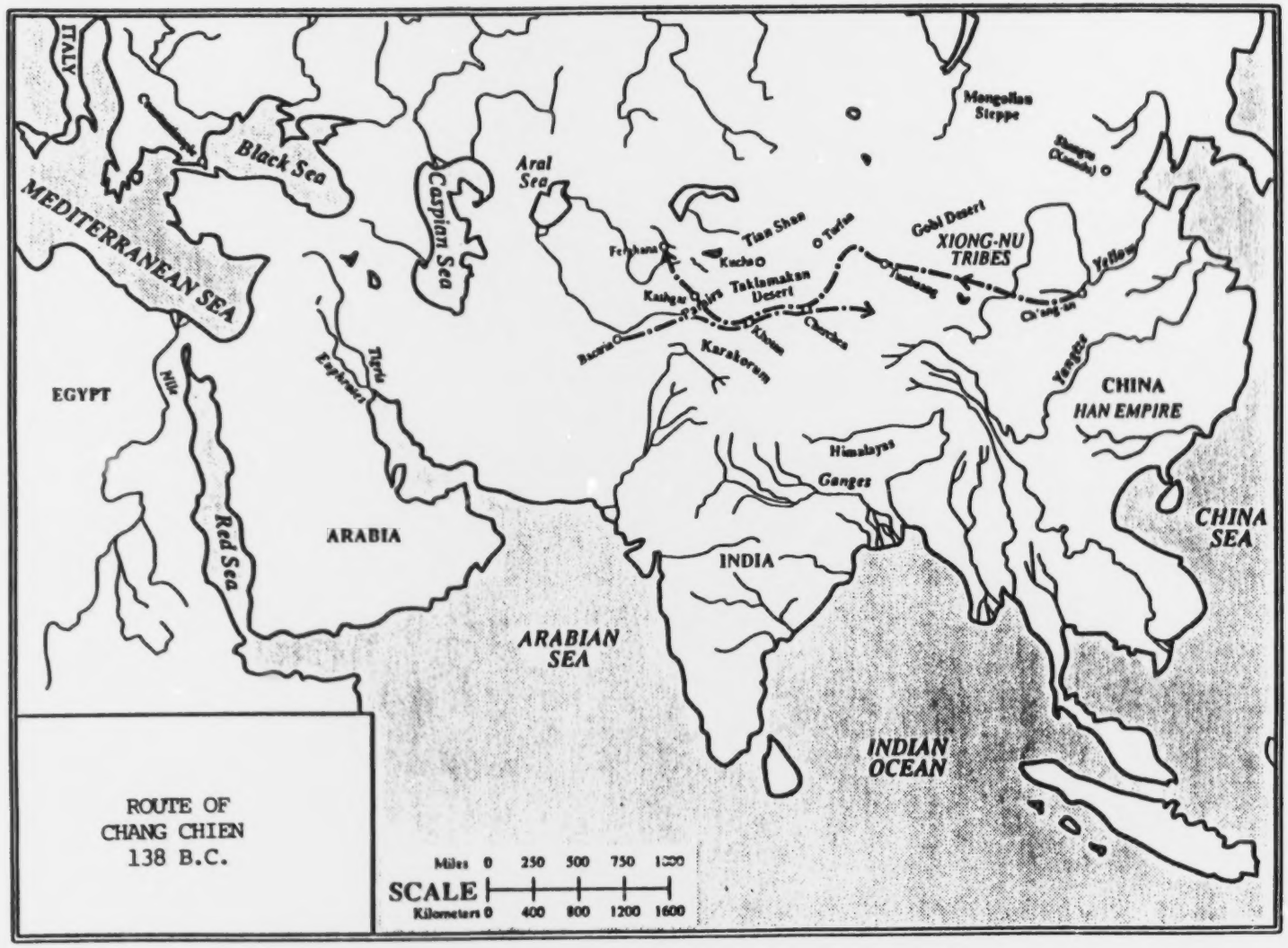
Chang Chien continued traveling westward and finally reached Bactria where the Yueh Chih lived. Bactria was a fertile and pleasant land. Chang Chien asked the Yueh Chih leader to join his poeple in fighting against the Hsiung Nu, but the Yueh Chih did not want to do this.

Chang Chien decided to stay and live with the Yueh Chih for a year. During this time, Chang Chien learned about many new plants

and animals in the area and later took some of these back to China.

When Chang Chien returned to China he had only one of his 100 men with him. He did not gain any allies, but he did bring back many stories of new lands and peoples of different cultures. He told the emperor of the strong and powerful horses of the Ferghana (Fair gah nah) region. These horses were stronger than those in China and could carry armored men into battle. He also told of the beautiful gem stones of Khotan.

Chang Chien also brought back new and different plants, cucumbers, chives, alfalfa, and grapes from the regions towards Bactria. He also introduced and exchanged Chinese plants, the pear, the peach, and the orange with the Yueh Chih people in Bactria. Chang Chien's travels and trade with the different people in different lands is thought to be the beginning of China's involvement in exchanging goods and ideas along the Silk Road (Adapted from China Project Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education (SPICE), 1990, p. 6-8).


ITALY
Black Sea
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Mongolian Steppe
Tian Shan
Gobi Desert
XIONG-NU TRIBES
Yellow
Takiamakan Desert
Karakorum
Yangtze
CHINA
HAN EMPIRE
EGYPT
Nile
Red Sea
ARABIA
Himalayas
Ganges
INDIA
CHINA SEA
ARABIAN SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
ROUTE OF
CHANG CHIEN
138 B.C.
Miles 0 250 500 750 1000
SCALE
Kilometers 0 400 800 1200 1600

153

154

HSUAN TSANG: BUDDHIST PILGRIM ON THE SILK ROAD

Probably the most famous traveler on the Silk Road was Hsuan Tsang (Shoewen Zahng), a Buddhist monk whose travels are recorded in a well-known Chinese novel, The Journey to the West. Hsuan Tsang was born in 602 A.D., and was the fourth child in a family of government officials. As a young man he traveled to many places in China, and spent fifteen years studying the teachings of Buddhism.

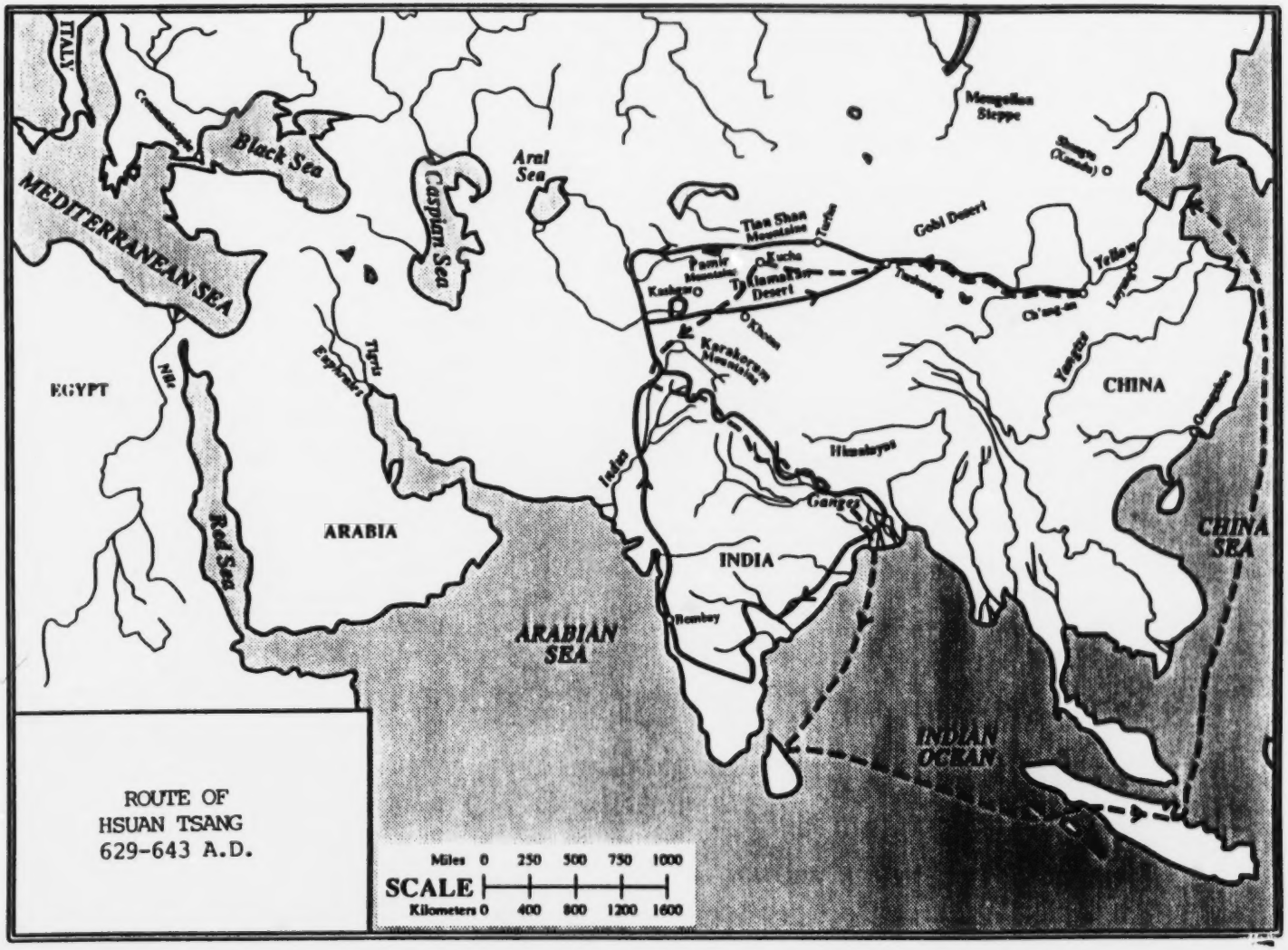
However, Hsuan Tsang found some of the teachings confusing, since many explanations of Buddhist ideas were often different from one translation to another. He decided to travel to India where he could find original copies of the Buddhist teachings and could talk with other Buddhist monks. To prepare for his trip, Hsuan Tsang took foreign language lessons and learned necessary travelers phrases.

In the fall of 629 A.D., Hsuan Tsang left on his journey from China to India. It was a long trip across long, hot desert areas. At the beginning of his trip he was alone, only following ancient signs in the desert, piles of whitened bones, and camel droppings left by camels who traveled before him. After crossing many miles of desert on foot, he arrived at welcomed oasis lands where he was treated very nicely. Some people wanted him to stay, but he refused. As parting gifts, they gave him interpreters, guides, horses, and gifts of silk and satin.

After leaving the oasis towns, Hsuan Tsang had to cross the steep, icy mountain ranges where animals often died from the difficult

trip and where robbers waited for travelers. Hsuan Tsang's strong spirit and courage helped him overcome many difficulties and finally to complete his long journey to India.

After spending over 10 years in India, Hsuan Tsang gathered hundreds of Buddhist records and writings to carry back to China. He began his trip home in 643 A.D., and carried the sacred Buddhist writings and the friendship of the Indian people with him. Today, along the ancient silk routes, caves, temples, and monasteries show the marks of Buddhism as it was carried along the roads of travelers, traders and pilgrims (Adapted from China Project Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education (SPICE), 1990, p. 10-12).


ITALY
Black Sea
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Mongolian Steppe
Tien Shan Mountains
Gobi Desert
Pamir Mountains
Kashgar
Khotan
Karakoram Mountains
Yellow
Yangtze
CHINA
EGYPT
Nile
Euphrates
Tigris
Indus
Himalayas
Ganges
ARABIA
Red Sea
INDIA
Bombay
ARABIAN SEA
CHINA SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
ROUTE OF
HSUAN TSANG
629-643 A.D.
Miles 0 250 500 750 1000
SCALE
Kilometers 0 400 800 1200 1600

MARCO POLO: ADVENTURER AND MERCHANT ALONG THE SILK ROAD

Marco Polo was born in 1254 A.D. in Venice, an Italian city, often called "the Queen of the Sea." Venice was a trade city, and competed with other city-states for power and money.

When Marco was a young boy, his father and uncle were often away on long trading trips. They often went to Constantinople, a busy city where traders from the East met the traders from the West. During one season, Marco's father and uncle decided to trade in areas further away from their usual routes. On this journey they met a group of Mongol government envoys who were on their way to see Kublai Khan, ruler of the great Mongol Empire. The Polos were invited to China by the envoys and arrived there in 1262 A.D.

Kublai Khan welcomed the Polo brothers and gave them gifts. He asked them to go back and invite 100 churchmen to come to China and teach what they knew.

The brothers traveled safely back to Venice and told stories about the court of the Khan. Young Marco, just 17, was eager to travel to such wonderful lands. Although the Polos could not find 100 churchmen to travel with them to China, they did find two to join them. Marco and the others then returned to the court of Kublai Khan.

The journey was very difficult and the traveling was more dangerous than the two churchmen expected. They returned to Venice almost immediately.

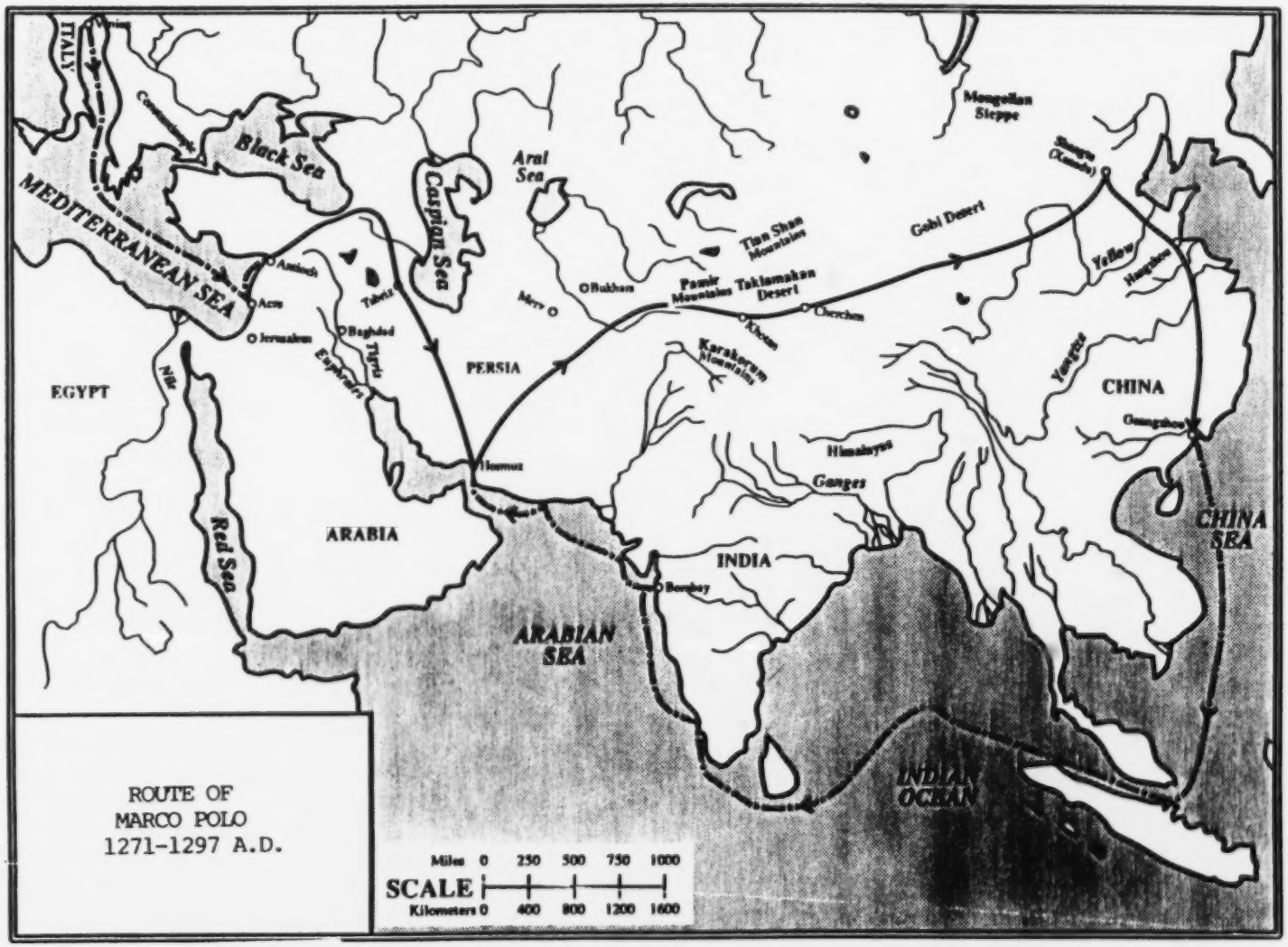
The Polos went on, passing from city to city. Soon they came to the great Gobi desert--the most dangerous part of their trip. It took 30 days to cross the long, sandy emptiness of the Gobi. Nothing grew in this endless sand, nothing lived on it, and nothing flew over it. The Polos loaded their camels and horses with food and water. They tied bells around the necks of all thier animals so none would get lost. After 3 ½ years they finally reached the land of Kublai Khan in the summer of 1275 A.D.

Kublai Khan was happy to see the Polo brothers again. He was especially pleased with young Marco who told him stories of the West. He soon won the emperor's favor. As a result, Marco was sent on special trips all over China. Marco lived in Peking, but visited beautiful cities like Suzhou (Sue Joe) and Hangzhou (Hoang Joe) in south China. On his travels, Marco learned of many Chinese inventions such as paper money, printing machines, and coal for fuel. These inventions thrilled Marco because they were not found in Europe.

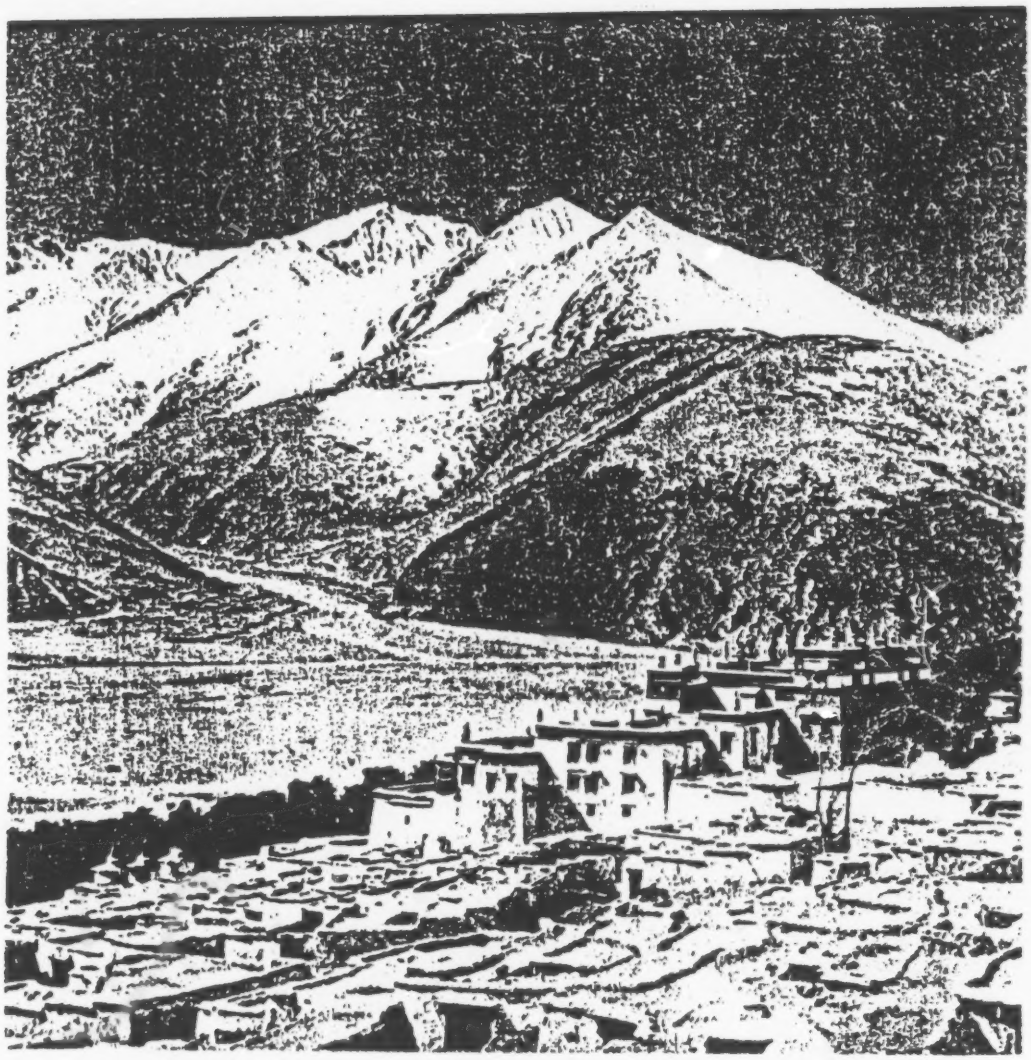
Marco stayed in China 17 years, and by the time he returned home to Venice in 1297 A.D., 26 years had gone by since he had left. Marco wrote all about his journey on his way home. His book is called A Description of the World, and it has been named one of greatest books ever written.

Marco Polo was one of the most famous travelers on the Silk Road, and like those before him helped spread ideas and goods from city to city across the land he traveled (Adapted from China

Project Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education (SPICE), 1990, p. 14-16).



ROUTE OF
MARCO POLO
1271-1297 A.D.



An oasis town in Tibet along the Silk Road (Tung, 1980, p. 34).

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Sheets of this ice, hard and shiny, stretch as far as the eye can see. Looking at the ice sheets, one is blinded by their brightness. The road is covered with cliffs and peaks of ice some of which are up to a hundred feet high and others tens of feet across. One cannot cross this road without great danger. Also, travelers along this route are often hit by blasts of wind and snowstorms so that, even with shoes and clothes covered with fur, they cannot help shivering in the cold. When it comes to eating or sleeping, travelers can find no dry place to lie down. They have no choice but to hang up their cooking-pots to prepare their food and lay out their mats upon the ice (Franck, Brownstone, 1986, p. 174-175).

Regardless of their enormous stamina, many camels would die on an especially difficult journey (Franck, Brownstone, 1986, p. 66).

Nomads were among the earliest traders on the Silk Road; these in modern Afghanistan continue the old tradition (Franck, Brownstone, 1986, p. 38).

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Pilgrims and traders on the mountain routes traveled across narrow passages by rope bridges or wooden roads, like this one on the Sino-Tibetan border (Franck, Brownstone, 1986, p. 175).

Against the emperor's wishes, Buddhist pilgrim Hsuan Tsang set out alone for India (Franck, Brownstone, 1986, p. 182).

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Travelers who ventured into the Taklamakan found an ocean of sand, blown into dunes tens or even hundreds of feet high (Franck, Brownstone, 1986, p. 101).

In sandstorms on the Taklamakan, travelers often had to cover their faces so they could breathe (Franck, Brownstone, 1986, p. 12).

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Pioneer	someone who goes before and prepares a way for others
Diplomat	someone who works in high positions of government
Envoys	messengers who often go from one country to another on diplomatic business
Nobleman	a person who is part of the upper-class in a country
Fertile	a place where fruits and vegetables grow easily
Allies	people who join others in fighting for a common goal

Buddhist	a follower of Gautama Buddha--a religious teacher who lived in India hundreds of years ago
Pilgrim	someone who travels in foreign lands especially to a shrine or holy place
Translation	changing information from one language to another
Oasis	a fertile or green area in a dry or desert land
Interpreters	people who translate the meaning of one language into another and explain the meaning to others
Merchant	someone who buys and sells things for a living

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